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A HISTORY OF
INDIA - - -
1526-1923

BY

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PREFACE.

In these pages, an attempt has been made to avoid what may be considered as superfluous in matter, and to present a text which may help an average pupil readily to acquire an adequate grasp of the subject. The method followed is one which worked well in class. It will allow a teacher time enough to lead the pupils further afield into the romance and the by-ways of the history of this ancient country.

For the sake of clearness, the trend of events has been divided into sections; these are not phases following one upon the other. Special treatment has been given to the bearing of sea-power on the History of India and to the connection of Afghanistan with India. Events of the last few years, especially the political, are treated a little fuller.

Though mainly intended for the High School level, the book, it is hoped, will be found suitable also for the Middle School.

H. E. H.

TRAVELLERS' BUNGALOW,
UHLAS PLATEAU
10-5-1923.

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FIRST SECTION.

THE MOGUL PERIOD

1526-1806.

CHAPTER I.

The Mogul Empire founded.

THE RACE.

The Moguls, whose name is the Arabic form for Mongol, were a fierce predatory horde that roved over the plains of Central Asia and called Tartary their home. They were yellowish in colour, untidy in appearance and savage of manner. Their religion was Mohamedan.

Two of their leaders, Chingiz Khan and Timur, had made themselves the scourges of Asia. Both of them ravaged Hindustan, the former in the beginning of the thirteenth and the latter at the close of the fourteenth century. Whatever culture their nobility finally acquired, was through their contact with Persia.

THE EMPIRE.

One of these nobles, Babar King of Kabul, twice invaded the Punjab. Then he returned, conquered the realm of the Sultan of Delhi and founded the Mogul Empire.

This Empire was built up by Akbar, north of the Narbada river and was extended into the Deccan. Akbar was the greatest ruler the Moguls had. After him Aurangzeb extended the Empire as far as Tanjore in the south but his long absence from Delhi the capital, the financial waste of his resources and his fanatical policy sowed the seeds of ruin. After his death no great ruler appeared. Within fifty years the Empire went from decline to utter decay, till in the reign of Shah Alum II, it disappeared altogether.

BABAR.

Babar, King of Kabul, was fifth in direct descent from Timur and was also related indirectly to Chingiz Khan. He had in him the blood of the two most dreaded conquerors of Asia. He was cradled in war and at the age of eleven was on the throne of Samarkhand, but before the romantic adventures of his youth had ended, he had twice lost that throne and in 1504 was left with the mastery of Kabul. India tempted his restless warring spirit. Twice he invaded and ravaged the Punjab. But he had made up his mind to occupy Hindustan for good. His opportunity came better than he had hoped for.

INDIA
INVADIED.

Daulat Khan, the governor of the Punjab invited his help against Ibrahim Lodi, the 1524.

PANIPAT.

Sultan of Delhi. Babar gave help but was deserted by Daulat Khan and had to retire to Kabul. But in 1526 he returned with only 1,200 men to conquer Sultan Ibrahim's realm which comprised the Punjab, the provinces of Oudh and Agra and parts of Rajputana. Sultan Ibrahim opposed him with an overwhelming army. They met at Panipat. It was a whole day fight. When the sun set, Ibrahim Lodi lay dead on the field, surrounded by 15,000 of his slaughtered army; the rest had scattered. 1526.

This victory gave Babar the Punjab and the district north-west of Delhi with the capital and a tract of country along the Jumna including Agra.

Babar now set himself the formidable task of conquering the rest of Hindustan. Opposed to him were two independent powers: the one was Hindu, and comprised several Rajput states v. g. Udaipur, Mewar and Jaipur; and the other was Afghan, and comprised Guzarat, Khandesh, Malwa, Jodpur, Bihar and Bengal.

RAJPUT
CONFLICT.

Sangram Singh, the Rana of Udaipur or 1527.
more commonly known as Sanga of Chitore,
with an enormous host opposed the small
army of Babar but was routed at Kanua, a 1528.
village near Sikri. Babar followed up this

crushing defeat by storming the fortress of Chanderi in Gwalior.

**AFGHAN
CONFLICT.**

Babar defeated the Afghan chiefs of Bihar and Bengal on the banks of the Gogra near its junction with the Ganges above Patna. Jodpur and Oudh were overrun. The other Afghan rulers were judiciously handled. 1529.

These victories left Babar master of a kingdom extending from the Oxus to the frontier of Bengal and from the Himalayas to Gwalior. But he died in 1530 before he could make his conquest firm. 1530.

**HIS
CHARACTER.**

Babar was a soldier of fortune. His 'Memoirs' reveal his life of adventure. He excelled as a poet and musician. He was very brave, determined, generous and deeply affectionate. A well-founded anecdote states that when his son Humayun was very ill, Babar prayed that the fever be transferred to himself. He soon after fell ill and died at Agra and lies buried, as he desired, at Kabul.

HUMAYUN.

HIS CAREER.

On the death of Babar, Humayun, the eldest of four sons, was nominally master of the Mogul Empire. 1530-1540. 1555-1558.

Kamran, his eldest brother, declared himself independent and took possession of Kabul and Kandahar and forced Humayun

to give him the Punjab. This was fatal. Humayun, as Sultan of Delhi while threatened on the south-west by Bahadur Shah the Afghan ruler of Guzarat and on the east by the Afghan chiefs of Bihar and Bengal, could thus get no supplies in men and money from Afghanistan and the Punjab.

Bahadur Shah of Guzarat besieged Chitore. Humayun was asked for aid. But on arriving there, he allowed the sack of Chitore and then strove to master Guzarat. While doing so, his nobles led by Sher Khan, who took the title of Shah and was the Afghan chief of the Sur family and ruler of Bihar, revolted at Delhi. Humayun hastened back and pursued Sher Khan. The latter retired on Chunar a strong fortress in Bihar. This Humayun stormed and captured and then idled his time away in pleasure. Sher Khan, however, got behind Humayun and cut him off from Delhi, defeated him at 1539.
Chausa and utterly routed him at Kanouj. 1540.

Humayun fled to Lahore, thence to Sind, and next to Marwar in Jodpur. Owing to his having allowed the sack of Chitore, the Rajputs proved hostile. Humayun had to seek safety in the deserts of Sind. There, at Umarmkot, his son Akbar was born. From thence Humayun escaped to Persia, 1544.

During the next 8 years, Humayun fought with Persian aid against his brother Kamran and finally recovered Afghanistan. Sikan-
 dar, the last of the Sur Dynasty, now ruled
 Delhi. Humayun invaded India, met and
 defeated Sikandar at Sarhind, and recovered
 his dominions after an absence of 13 years.
 But he had no time to strengthen his hold
 on them, for he died suddenly, having
 fallen over the parapet of his court at
 Delhi. 1555.

HIS
 CHARACTER.

He was highly cultured for his time and remarkable for his knowledge of Mathematics and Astronomy. Though brave and good-natured, like the despots of his day he held human life lightly and could be very cruel. His lack of decision was the cause of long years of exile and suffering. He should not have so easily yielded Kabul and Afghanistan to Kamran nor have left the conquest of Guzarat unfinished nor have pursued Sher Khan so far as Chunar and then idly have allowed this wary Afghan to cut the line of communication with Delhi.

Few men, let alone rulers, have faced so many a thrilling peril, as Humayun did; fewer have come through it all to meet with tragic death amidst safety.

THE SUR DYNASTY.

SHER KHAN. SHER KHAN, the head of the Sur family, 1540-1555. was an Afghan chief who took the title of Shah after his revolt against Humayun. He ruled over Bihar and Bengal. After he had defeated Humayun at Kanouj and had partially conquered the Punjab, he built the fortress of Jhelum and, to some extent, brought Malwa and Mewar under his control. He then set up his throne at Delhi but was killed while besieging Kalingar. 1545.

HIS RULE. Sher Khan was a just ruler. He made good roads lined with large trees; built serais and wells for travellers; established a postal system; encouraged trade; issued silver rupees; introduced an elaborate system of revenue settlement based on the measurement of land, which was afterwards followed by Todar Mall. Justice of a rough and ready kind was carried out under his supervision. Villages were held accountable for crimes committed within their limits. His powerful army was well maintained.

HIS SUCCESSORS. ISLAM SHAH SUR:—Sher Khan was 1545-1555. succeeded by his son Islam, who, with much fighting, held the throne for 9 years. He was not as talented as his father. On his death, his infant son was murdered by his uncle Mubariz Khan.

MUBARIZ KHAN ascended the throne under the title of Adil Shah. He was a good-for-nothing. All power lay with Hemu, a Hindu of Mewat. Adil Shah's right to the throne was contested by the Afghan noble Ebrahim at Agra and Delhi, and by Ahmad Khan in the Punjab. 1554-1556.

Sikandar Sur, the nephew of Sher Shah and the last calimant to the throne of the Sur dynasty, was campaigning in the Punjab. This revolt of the Afghan nobles led to the return of Humayun. The latter beat Sikandar Sur at Sarhind, marched on to Agra and Delhi and recovered his lost possessions. Humayun in this was much helped by 1555. Bairam Khan, his chief military officer.

CHAPTER II.

The Mogul Empire built up.

AKBAR.

1556-
1605.

When Humayun died, his eldest son Akbar, 13 years old, was in the Punjab, protected by Bairam Khan, the commander of the Mogul army. Almost the same political situation faced Akbar now as had faced Humayun. It was necessary at the outset to secure his position at Delhi and Agra. This meant the complete overthrow of the Sur Dynasty. Hemu, the Hindu administrator, now ruled there. Fortunately for Akbar, Bairam Khan was a far better soldier and leader than Hemu. Once again the two armies met at Panipat to decide the fate of the Mogul rule. Hemu met with disaster and was beheaded.

PANIPAT.

1556.

HIS MILITARY
CAREER.

THE SUR
DYNASTY.

During the next three years, Akbar uprooted the Sur Dynasty ; established himself firmly at Delhi and took Ajmere, Gwalior, and Jaunpur,

1559.

BAIRAM KHAN. Up to now Bairam Khan had been regent; **1560,** but Akbar wished to govern ; so he dismissed Bairam Khan and ordered him to go on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Bairam was unwilling to do so and rebelled but was overcome and treated with ceremony. Court intrigue obliged him, however, to set out and, on his way, he was murdered at Patan in Guzarat by an Afghan enemy. He had proved loyal and true to Akbar when in distress and had won the throne back for him. He certainly deserved better treatment than he received.

Akbar now wanted to make himself the unquestioned ruler of India. He would brook no rival. So he began the conquest of Rajputana and Guzarat, and then went east, west and south. His designs were aggressive. He looked upon the independence of a neighbouring state as a challenge.

RAJPUTANA. Akbar resented the rugged independence **1568.** of the Rana of Chitore, the head of the Rajput clans. He stormed and took Chitore. Ranthambor and Kalingar, two very strong fortresses, fell in 1569 and left Akbar master over all Rajputana, except the State of Mewar, which was never really subdued, though its Rana, Partab Singh, was badly **1576,** defeated at the Haldighat Pass near Gogunda.

GUJARAT.

Ever since the death of Bahadur Shah, 1572-
Guzarat was in disorder. One of the factions 1573.
asked Akbar for help. Akbar gave it and 1540.
subdued Guzarat. A revolt, however, broke
out at Surat. Akbar, who was in Sikhri,
600 miles away, reached the town of Ahmeda-
bad in 9 days and took it. Sikhri was called
Fathpur, the city of victory, after this
exploit. Akbar annexed Guzarat without
further difficulty. This possession gave
Akbar access to the sea and control of the
rich commerce passing to the west. Here he
first came into touch with the Portuguese,
the only Europeans then in India.

BENGAL
BIHAR
ORISSA.

Daud Khan, the young Afghan King of 1575-
Bengal, openly defied the suzerainty of 1592.
Akbar. The latter readily attacked, de-
feated and killed Daud Khan near Rajmahal,
Bengal and Bihar were annexed. Thus, in 1576-
1579, more than 20 years after the Battle of
Panipat, Akbar was the master of the whole
of Northern India Proper. But Orissa was
not annexed until 1592.

N. W. PROVIN-
CES.

Akbar offended his Mohamedan subjects 1581-
by his obvious lack of faith in Islam, by his 1596.
partiality towards Christians, Jains and
Parsees, and by the harsh manner in which
his administrative measures were carried
out. His Mohamedan subjects looked upon

him as attacking Islam. They formed a wide conspiracy to place his orthodox half-brother, Mohamed Hakim of Kabul, on the throne. A rebellion broke out in Bengal and Afghanistan. 1581.

To punish Mohamed Hakim for having invaded the Punjab, Akbar marched into Afghanistan and took Kabul. He stayed at Lahore for the next 13 years. While he was there, his generals seized Kashmir and then subdued Sind (1586-91); they conquered Baluchistan in 1594 and took Khandahar in 1595 from the Persians. Thus Akbar was now master of the whole of the North of India and of the North-West Frontier Provinces. 1582.

THE DECCAN. Akbar wanted to rule over the whole of India. He prepared to invade the Deccan. In 1591, he sent embassies to the four kingdoms of the Deccan : Khandesh, Bijapur, Golconda and Ahmednagar, to have them recognise his authority. Only the small state of Khandesh submitted. It, however, rebelled in 1601 ; but, when the fortress of Asirgarh fell, it surrendered. 1590.
1601.

AHMEDNAGAR. Prince Murad, Akbar's son, attacked Ahmednagar. Both the Hindu and Mahomedan nobles were dismissed. Murad would have had no difficulty but for Chand Bibi, a lady of the royal house, who fought sword in 1590.
1600.

hand and defeated him. Chand Bibi was treacherously murdered. Daniyal, the youngest son of Akbar, took Ahmednagar. 1600. The taking of Ahmednagar and Asirgarh, the capital of Khandesh, closed the long roll of Akbar's victories in war.

The aim Akbar had in conquest was to bring all India under his own sway, yet so that various Indian races, and foreigners too, might work together for the common good of his Empire. His Empire was peaceful and strong north of the Narbada but unstable south of that river.

HIS REFORMS. SOCIAL :—Akbar promoted intermarriage between Hindus and Mohamedans, encouraged the re-marriage of Hindu widows, and forbade child-marriage, suttee and slavery.

B. POLITICAL :—He treated Hindus and Mohamedans alike. The jizya, a poll-tax imposed on all non-Mohamedans was abolished. He divided the Empire into 18 Subas or local governments. These Subas were subdivided into Sarkars or districts. The Sarkars were again divided into Paganas or Mahals. The Subas were under a Subahdar, who was either a prince of the blood or a great noble. The Subahdar had full civil and military control over his district but had to provide the Emperor of Delhi with men and

money in case of need. Under the Subahdars were the Mansubahdars who drew pay in proportion to their rank, and, in time of war, had to supply Akbar with men. Many of these held jagirs or grants of land.

C. MILITARY :—Akbar abolished the custom of giving generals territory out of which they were to pay their soldiers. By paying the soldiers himself, he made them responsible to himself. Directly under him were about 25,000 men, mostly cavalry.

D. REVENUE :—He was much helped in the revenue administration by Todar Mall, a Hindu. Todar Mall based his system on that of Sher Shah of Bengal and on that prevalent in Guzarat : i. e., all lands were carefully measured, their produce assessed, and their fruitfulness determined ; all lands were thus divided into three classes : good, middling, and poor. The cultivators had to pay one-third of the value of the produce to the State, either in money or in kind. To some extent, this stopped the extortion of the ryot by the revenue officers.

E. JUDICIAL :—Law suits of Mohame-dans were heard and settled by learned Mohamedan lawyers under the control of a Chief Justice ; Hindus appeared before a Brahmin Judge who applied the Hindu Law.

Over all was the Emperor who held an open court and decided cases which had more or less been sifted before lower tribunals. The Code of Law was not too intricate and the punishment it inflicted was of a rude and ready character.

F. RELIGIOUS :—During his reign, diversity of religion was tolerated. Jains, Hindus, Parsees and Christians were all favourably received at his court. The Portuguese were most powerful on the west coast and on the Arabian Sea. Akbar made special efforts from 1582-1601 to secure their military help in the Deccan. This was, perhaps, the chief reason why he favoured Catholic missionaries at his court. He was interested in religion but was no ardent supporter of any faith. He was more indifferent than tolerant. Still, when he found no religion fully suited him, he drew up one of his own making.

His idea was to substitute in disputed matters of faith, his own imperial authority, for that of Islam. His aim was political for he wanted Islam to be a pledge of union with the throne. So he persuaded the Ulama to issue a decree declaring that an imperial decision on a disputed matter, if supported besides by a Koran text, had binding force on all Mohamedans.

This new form of religion laid stress on : (a) belief in one God ; (b) belief that the Emperor was the infallible representative of God on earth. It was called Tauhid-illah or Din-illahi or divine faith. It had no measure of success. At bottom, Akbar was a free-thinker. This attitude of mind had much developed under the influence of Abul Fazl his chosen friend and councillor. The latter played the part of high priest of the new cult. He was a man of profound learning, very hard working and extremely clever. Both he and Akbar championed toleration in religious matters. They practised it towards all except Mohamedans. He wrote the "Institute of Akbar." Some ruffians, hired by Akbar's eldest son, murdered him in 1603.

HIS
CHARACTER.

His character was a very complex one, a play of light and shadow. After the fall of Bairam Khan, he came under the influence of bad advisors and was sometimes very cruel, e.g., in allowing Pir Mohamed to commit atrocities in Malwa. At times he acted foolishly, e.g., in his insults to Islam. Akbar was a man of letters, fond of music and architecture, and of outdoor exercise. He was a great general. He showed zeal and care in the administration of justice. His policy

to those who submitted was peaceful and tolerant. He is rightly considered a good statesman. But he was most ambitious and brooked no opposition to his resolve of bringing all India under his control. He is undoubtedly the greatest of the Moguls.

JAHANGIR.

1605-
1627.

Salim, the eldest son of Akbar, succeeded to the throne. In youth he was dissipated. On the throne he proved to be incapable of keeping the Empire together. Nur Jahan, his Queen, acting on the advice of her father and her uncle, became the power behind the throne, that upheld the Empire.

HIS CHARACTER.

Jahangir was a typical despot, a mixture of tenderness and cruelty, of justice and caprice, of culture and savageness, of common sense and childishness. He was very fond of natural history and of beautiful scenery, and was a skilled artist, a good musician and a generous patron of art.

What his religious belief was is difficult to say. He was no orthodox Mohamedan for he disbelieved in Mohamed; he adopted no Hindu practices but he showed a marked liking for Christian images and ritual. Though he believed in one God, he accepted no divine revelation,

NUR JAHAN. His Queen Mihr-un-Nisa, was afterwards known as Nur Jahan. She was the widow of Sherafgan and a beautiful and talented woman, who exercised a beneficial influence over Jahangir, helping him very ably in the affairs of Government. Though kind and generous, she was very jealous.

Jahangir's youngest son Prince Shahryar, who married her daughter, was her favourite. She intrigued against Kurram, Jahangir's eldest son, to secure the throne for the former. Kurram, after his successful campaign in the Deccan, rebelled against Jahangir but was defeated by Mahabat Khan, an able general, who, however, allowed Kurram to escape to Bengal. Nur Jahan never forgave Mahabat Khan and plotted his ruin. He fled and then rebelled. Both Jahangir and Nur Jahan pursued him but he captured Jahangir. Nur Jahan rescued the latter. Mahabat Khan fled to Kurram in Bengal. On the death of Jahangir, these two defeated and killed Shahryar and brought the power of Nur Jahan to an end. She died in 1645.

EVENTS.

A. KHUSRU, his son, rebelled in Lahore, but was overcome. His followers were impaled. Khusrú was imprisoned till 1622, when he was strangled to death by order of his brother, Kurram.

KHUSRU.

B. BENGAL :—After the rebellion of 1612. Usman Khan was put down, there followed:

THE
PORTUGUESE.

WAR WITH THE PORTUGUESE :—In 1613. 1608 Capt. W. Hawkins visited Jahangir with a letter from James I., asking for the grant of trade facilities. Jahangir granted his request and even made Hawkins a mansabdar i. e., a commander of 400 men, with a salary of Rs. 30,000.

But Mendosa, the Portuguese Viceroy at Goa, considered this an act of hostility on the part of Jahangir, for the Portuguese had been given the monopoly of trade in India. He refused to receive Jahangir's ambassador. Jahangir, fearing the Portuguese, dismissed Hawkins. But, in the year 1612, the Portuguese were defeated in the Arabian Sea by a small British sea-force off Suvali, the port of Surat ; so when in 1613, the Portuguese seized four Mogul ships with their cargo and imprisoned their crew and passengers, Jahangir summoned up courage, attacked Damaun, seized all Portuguese subjects in his dominions, forbade the Christian practice of religion and began to use the British as a counter-check to the Portuguese. Thus, when Sir Thomas Roe in 1615 arrived at Jahangir's court as the accredited ambassa-

dor of James I., he easily obtained a treaty giving security to British trade.

RAJPUTANA. C. The Rana of Udaipur asserted his independence, but was subdued by Kurram, the eldest son of Jahangir. For this Kurram received the title of Shah Jahan. 1612-1614.

DECCAN. D. Ahmednagar claimed its independence under an Abyssinian ruler, Malik Amber. Ahmednagar was retaken as the kings of Bijapur and Golconda had helped Malik, Shah Jahan subdued them also. Malik was forced to give up much money and a large extent of territory. 1616.

KHANDAHAR. E. LOSS OF KHANDAHAR :- Shah Abbas, King of Persia retook Khandahar. Kurram, though ordered to recover it, refused to do so in order not to imperil his succession to the throne, for Jahangir was ailing seriously. Prince Shahryar led an unsuccessful attack on Shah Abbas. 1622.

Jahangir died at Lahore in 1645.

CHAPTER III.

Zenith of the Mogul Empire.

SHAH JAHAN.

1627-
1658.

HIS
CHARACTER.

Shah Jahan or Kurram, Jahangir's eldest son, was treacherous, cruel and avaricious. He was not a capable ruler but had good officers who served him well: e. g., Sadulla Khan Allarni, who was a first-rate minister, and Mushid, the administrator, who introduced the Revenue System of Todar Mall into the Deccan. Shah Jahan possessed unlimited wealth. He was married to Mumtaz Mahal, daughter of Asaf Khan, and niece of Nur Jahan. She lies buried in the Taj. Shah Jahan spent much of his money on costly buildings, e. g. the Taj Mahal, the famous Peacock Throne, and the Pearl Mosque at Agra. As a soldier, he aimed at recovering his ancestral territory in Bactria and Bokhara.

EVENTS,

THE
PORTUGUESE.

A. THE PORTUGUESE IN BENGAL :—The Portuguese, about 1600 A.D., had been allowed to build a factory on the Hugli. They added a fort and established trade. In 1625 they had offended Muntaz Mahal by refusing to give up two girls, who were her slaves, and had previously offended Shah Jahan by refusing him help against his father. Finally, they so interfered with the trade of Bengal as to cause a loss of revenue to Shah Jahan. He destroyed their settlements on the Hugli.

1632.

THE DECCAN.

B. WAR IN THE DECCAN :—The Viceroy of the Deccan, Khan Jahan Lodi, rebelled and persuaded the King of Ahmednagar to join him. He was captured and slain, Ahmednagar was annexed.

1630-
1637.

KHANDAHAR.

C. THE STRUGGLE FOR KHANDAHAR :—It was a cherished policy of the Moguls to bring under their sway in Hindustan all the countries in Central Asia, that had been connected with the early history of their dynasty. Thus Khandahar, lying on the route between Persia and India, became a possession of great strategic importance. In 1545 the Persians who had taken it from Humayun, lost it to Akbar; in 1622 Jahangir lost it to the Persian, Shah Abbas; but in 1638 Shah Jahan recovered it. In 1645 Shah Jahan sent his eldest son Murad, with

the general Mardan Khan, against the Persian Provinces of Balk and Badakhshan : they were occupied. Prince Murad then left for Hindustan and was succeeded by Prince Aurangzeb. The Persians rallied and drove Aurangzeb out of the occupied Provinces and took Khandahar. Shah Jahan directed an attempt to recover the town but failed. So, too, did the third and last attempt under Prince Dara. The cost of these three fruitless attempts ran up to 120 millions of rupees.

MADRAS. D. MADRAS :—We may note here, that in 1639, the Raja of Chandragiri, the representative of the decayed dynasty of Vijaynagar, granted Madras as a factory to the British. The event passed unnoticed : it was the beginning of the British territorial possession of India.

GOLCONDA. E. SUBJUGATION OF GOLCONDA :—In 1656 Aurangzeb, then Governor of the Deccan, was the great friend of Mir Jumla the Prime Minister of Golconda. Mir Jumla was a Persian adventurer and was practically the master of Golconda and had, besides, made a dominion for himself out of a large tract of the Carnatic. The Sultan of Golconda grew jealous of his power and on trying to bring him under control, Mir Jumla revolted

and went over to the service of Aurangzeb. The Sultan of Golconda put Mir Jumla's son into prison and refused Aurangzeb's order to release him. Aurangzeb besieged Golconda. Shah Jahan compelled Aurangzeb to raise the siege, but the Sultan was fined heavily and had to cede a district.

BIJAPUR.

F. SIEGE OF BIJAPUR :—When Adil 1656. Shah of Bijapur died, Ali Shah his son succeeded. Aurangzeb disallowed this and claimed the right to appoint the successor. Bijapur was besieged and would have been annexed, had not Shah Jahan fallen seriously ill. His illness led to :

THE FRATRICIDAL WAR OF SUCCESSION :— 1658-1659.
Shah Jahan had four sons : Dara, Shuja, Murad and Aurangzeb. All were mature men with considerable experience in military and civil matters.

DARA stayed with his father but ruled the Punjab and the north-west possessions through deputies. He was very proud and irritable and a free-thinker.

SHUJA was governor of Bengal and Orissa and was an amiable man, pleasure-loving and undecided. He was a Shia in belief.

MURAD governed Guzarat and the West but, though very brave, was a dissolute stupid despot. He was a Sunni in belief.

AURANGZEB, a staunch Sunni, and the governor of the Deccan, was a man of great ability, an unscrupulous intriguer and a cool politician with an unswerving will. He resolved to win the throne at any cost.

All four men were practically independent and ruled over vast territory and controlled great wealth and powerful armies.

THE CONTEST. Shuja and Murad took the royal title and struck coins in their own names. Aurangzeb joined Murad and persuaded him that he should oppose a free-thinker like Dara, or a Shia like Shuja. Aurangzeb assured Murad that he would go on a pilgrimage to Mecca, 1658, as soon as Murad was successful. They attacked Dara at Samugarh, near Agra, and defeated him. They marched on to the city and imprisoned Shah Jahan. After the victory, Aurangzeb entertained Murad at a banquet, made him drunk, imprisoned him, and had him murdered at Gwalior in 1661.

Aurangzeb now faced Shuja and defeated 1660, him at Allahabad. Shuja fled to Arakan and was never heard of again. Dara was next captured and put to death as an infidel. Shah Jahan remained a captive in Agra till his death. 1666.

AURANGZEB.

1658-
1707.

He came to the throne at the age of forty and was bent upon spreading his religious faith at any cost. His rule exhibits the failure to govern, on the religious principle of Islam, a vast empire inhabited chiefly by Hindus.

EVENTS.

A. IN THE EAST :—Assam was sacked and ravaged by Mir Jumla. Aurangzeb made him Governor of Bengal, but Mir Jumla failed to rule firmly enough. His successor was Shaista Khan, the uncle of Aurangzeb. He governed Bengal for about 30 years and put down Portuguese pirates near Chittagong, and compelled the king of Arakan to cede Chittagong. The British settlement at Hugli, it is said, was obtained through the services of Surgeon Boughton, from the Mohamedan Governor of Bengal. In 1686, Job Charnock tried to settle a branch settlement of the Company, at Calcutta. He failed and the British were driven out of Bengal by the Governor, Shaista Khan, uncle of Aurangzeb; the British ships in return annoyed pilgrims on the west coast going from Surat to Mecca. Aurangzeb was thus forced to allow Job Charnock to return to Hugli and to form a settlement at Calcutta. 1689, Fort William was built,

BENGAL.

JIZYA.

B. IN THE NORTH :—For 20 years Hindustan had been quiet, but in 1669 Aurangzeb attacked Hinduism on religious grounds and ordered Benares, Mathura and other holy cities, to be desecrated. He imposed the jizya or poll-tax on non-Muslims.

RAJPUTANA

A rebellion broke out at Narnul south-west of Delhi among a sect of Hindus known as Satnani. They were soon put down but a serious Rajput rebellion took place. Jaswant Singh of Jodhpur died in 1678. Aurangzeb tried to seize his two infant sons but failed. Then the Rani of Jodhpur and the Rana of Udaipur rebelled. For three years the fighting continued. Finally the Rana of Udaipur agreed to cede territory in place of paying the hated jizya. Through this persecution, Aurangzeb lost the loyalty of the Rajputs who now became his bitterest enemies.

DECCAN
WARS.

C. IN THE SOUTH :—A. FIRST WAR WITH THE MARATHAS :—The Marathas in the Deccan were powerful under Sivaji. The latter helped Aurangzeb against Bijapur, but aroused the Emperor's fury, when he levied blackmail on pilgrims going to Mecca. Sivaji was overcome and came to Agra to pay homage to Aurangzeb but was imprisoned. He escaped and, on his return, overran the

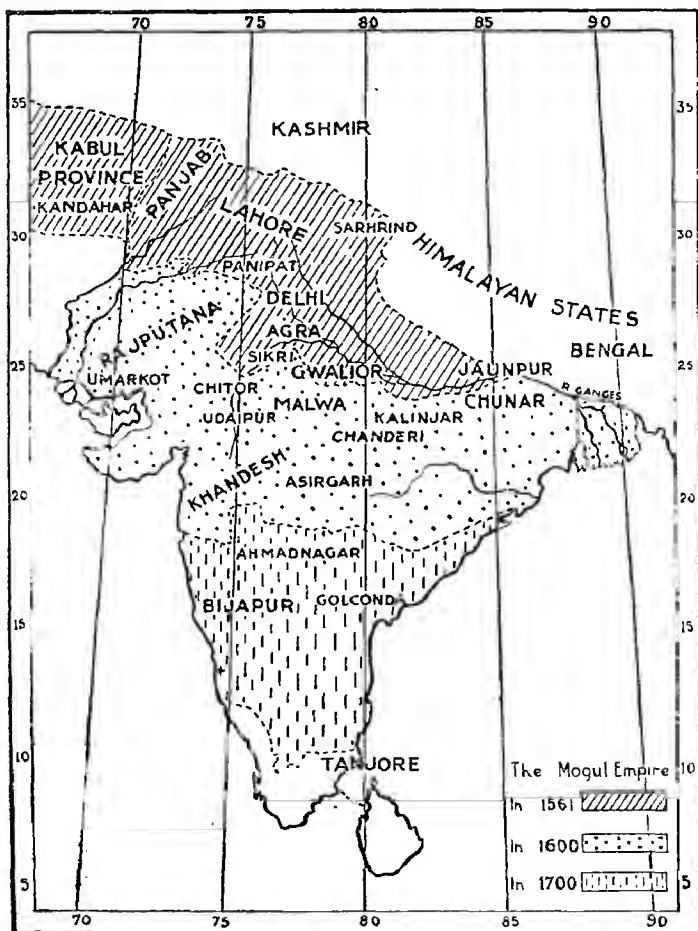
6 Mogul Subas in the Deccan and levied 1666.
 chauth from them. He aided Bijapur 1679.
 against Aurangzeb.

B. CONQUEST OF BIJAPUR AND GOL- 1685-
 CONDA :—Aurangzeb, having failed to crush 1687.
 Sivaji, turned to his old project of subduing
 the above States. These Mohamedan States
 were remnants of the Bahmani Kingdom.
 Both had been friendly to the Marathas.
 With some difficulty he annexed them.
 Thus after 197 years of existence, the Bah-
 mani Kingdom ended. Its Kings were
 known as Adil Shabs. The overthrow of the
 Bahmani Kingdom was a fatal mistake, for,
 though its overthrow extended the Mogul
 Empire as far as Tanjore yet it left Aurang-
 zeb without Mohamedan support against
 the Marathas in the Deccan.

C. SECOND CONTEST WITH THE MARA- 1687-
 THAS :—Sivaji's son Sambhaji was murdered 1707.
 by Aurangzeb. The Marathas rallied under 1689.
 Raja Ram the only surviving son of Sivaji.
 Raja Ram was besieged at Jingi. He bribed
 the Mogul, Zulfikar Khan, and escaped.
 Aurangzeb now attacked the Marathas
 with a large army. He took Satara and other
 places. But his army was disorganised. In
 his custody was Sahu, the infant son of
 Sambhaji. He had some promise of success,

till finances began to fail him ; his army grew discouraged, for it was continually harassed. Aurangzeb died broken hearted at Ahmednagar. The Marathas not only recovered 1707. their lost territory but levied chauth on Mogul territory in the Deccan.

CHARACTER. Suspicious and intolerant, he acted more as the religious head of the Sunni sect than as an Emperor having under him different races and creeds. He could not tolerate the fact that the majority of his people were Hindu in religion. His religious measures turned not only Hindus against him, such as the Rajputs and the Marathas, but also the Shia Mohamedans of Bijapur and Golconda. His officials were corrupted by luxury. His administration ended in financial ruin. He was a brave man, strong in misfortune, devoted to what he thought was his duty, a skilful general, a zealous Mohamedan, but no statesman.



CHAPTER IV.

The Mogul Empire Declines.

BAHADUR SHAH.

1707-
1712.

The death of Aurangzeb left the Mogul dominions in confusion. Civil war broke out among his heirs. The Marathas rose in revolt and overran the central and western regions. The Southern provinces soon became an independent realm under Asaf Jah, the Nizam of Hyderabad. Bengal fell away under the control of the Afghan, Alivardi Khan. The Sikhs rose to independence in the Punjab. Afghanistan had driven the Mogul garrisons out. Various usurpers set up their petty thrones in the remoter districts. The Mogul Empire had started on its path to ruin.

Aurangzeb left his dominions to four sons, Muazzam, Azam, Akbar, and Kambaksh. Akbar was a rebel in exile. The other three fell out over the dividing of the kingdom.

Two of them were slain and Muazzam ascended the throne as Bahadur Shah or Shah Alam I.

HIS POLICY. He was nicknamed, "the heedless," because he could not govern wisely. His policy was one of peace at any price.

a. He won over the Marathas by releasing their Raja, Sahu, and allowing them to collect chauth from the Mogul territories in the Deccan. Sahu's release caused civil war among his adherents and those of Tara Bai, his aunt. This Maratha dispute was a gain to Shah Alam.

b. He reconciled the Rajputs by removing the jizya.

c. The Sikhs under Guru Govind gave him trouble. Guru Govind was killed, but the Sikhs under Banda, ravaged Sarhind and other places in the Punjab. 1708. 1712.

Bahadur Shah died at Lahore. 1712.

FARRUKSIYAR.

When Bahadur Shah died, he was succeeded by Jahandar Shah, a worthless man. After a few months, he was killed by Farruksiyar, son of the Governor of Bengal. 1713-1718.

EVENTS. a. During his reign the Sikhs were crushed.

b. In the Deccan :—Hussain Ali, Governor of the Deccan, was defeated by Sahu, the Maratha leader. The Marathas imposed chauth on the Mogul territory in the Deccan. 1716.

c. The British were worried by the Nawab of Bengal and sent representatives with presents to Delhi ; they secured trade commissions and exemptions from customs duties. This success was due partly to Surgeon Hamilton, who cured the Emperor of a serious disease, and partly to the fear that the British sea-power might hold up trade from Surat to the West.

d. The Emperor was murdered by the Sayyids of Barha. 1718.

THE SAYYIDS.

The Sayyids or king-makers were Hussain Ali, Governor of Bihar, and Abdulla, Governor of Allahabad. They were two noblemen and brothers, possessing great influence. They had fought for Farruksiyar and had defeated and killed Jahandar Shah near Agra. Through their influence Farruksiyar was placed on the throne. When he tried to throw off their yoke, they put him to death and put Mohamed Shah on the throne. Hussain Ali was assassinated later on. Abdulla was defeated at Sharpur by Nizam-ul-mulk and Saadat Khan. 1720.

CHAPTER V.

The Mogul Empire breaks up.

MOHAMED SHAH.

1719-
1748.

Mohamed Shah, a member of the royal family, was put on the throne by the Sayyids of Barha. He was gradually confined to Delhi as his capital, while the outlying powers, Hindu, Mohamedan and foreign, gradually secured more independence.

THE BREAKING UP.

INDEPENDEN-
CE OF THE
DECCAN.

a. The Marathas under Balaji Vishvanath Rao, the first Peshwa, forced Mohamed Shah not only to acknowledge his claim to the hereditary dominions of Sivaji but also the right to collect chauth from the six Mogul Subas of the Deccan. 1719.

b. Asaf Jah, a Turkish noble and son of a favourite officer of Aurangzeb, had become Viceroy of the Deccan. For a time he was vazir of Delhi. He overthrew the Sayyids at the battle of Sharpur. On retiring from 1707. 1720.

Delhi, he made himself altogether independent of Mohamed Shah, at Hyderabad in the 1723. Deccan. He was the founder of the present State of Hyderabad.

Baji Rao I. the second Peshwa of the Marathas occupied Malwa and Guzarat and defeated Asaf Jah at Seronje. After that Asaf Jah strengthened his power at Hyderabad and became master of the Carnatic. He died in 1748.

OF OUDH. Saadat Khan, Governor of Oudh, made himself independent and founded the line of the nawab-vazirs. 1724.

OF BENGAL. Alivardi Khan, Subadar of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, refused to pay tribute. Later on he was defeated by the Marathas and ceded a great part of Orissa to them and paid chauth. 1751.

OF ROHILKHAND. Next came the revolt of the Rohillas, an Afghan clan. They made themselves masters of a tract of country north of the Ganges.

FOREIGN INVASION. Nadir Shah, an adventurer, who in 1736 had seized the throne of Persia, defeated Mohamcd Shah at Karnal, and entered Delhi. He took away with him the Peacock Throne, the crown jewels, and a great amount of booty. Thus 17 years after the death of Aurangzeb, the Empire had broken up; its complete decay now set in. 1739.

CHAPTER VI.

The Mogul Empire decays.

AHMAD SHAH.

1748-
1754.

a. Ahmad Shah ceded the Punjab to Ahmad Shah, head of the Abdalli or Durrani clan of Afghans. 1752.

The Marathas became so powerful that, under Balaji Baji Rao, the third Peshwa, they captured Delhi and exacted chauth from the Moguls. Ahmad Shah was imprisoned by a rival faction for power. Ghazni-ud-din, the grandson of Asaf Jah, blinded and deposed him and placed Alamgir II on the throne. 1754.

ALAMGIR II.

1754-
1759.

He was the uncle of Ahmad Shah.

a. Ahmad Shah Abdulla or Durrani, who had commanded a large body of cavalry under Nadir Shah, had on the death of the latter, mastered Afghanistan. From there he

invaded Northern India. He sacked Delhi and massacred the Hindus at Mathura. He then left the Punjab under a Governor and retired to Afghanistan and founded its dynasty of Amirs.

SIRAJ-UD-
DAULAH.

b. Siraj-ud-Daulah was chosen Nawab of Bengal by his grand-father, Alivardi Khan. He longed to seize the Company's wealth which had been grossly exaggerated to him. Pretexts were soon found for attacking the Company; he declared they had offended him by sheltering Kishan Das, a Hindu whom he wanted to rob; he also took offence at the British strengthening Fort William against possible French attack during the Seven Years' War, then raging in Europe. 1756.

Siraj-ud-Daulah seized the British settlement at Kossimbazaar and marched on to Calcutta. The British garrison of 146 men under Holwell defended themselves, but had to surrender, and for the rest of the night are said to have been put into the Black Hole, a guard-room not 20 feet square, out of which only 23 came out alive next morning. Other British fugitives reached Falta. Relief was sent to them from Madras. Siraj was beaten at Dum-dum by Clive and again at Plassey. 1757. Siraj was then murdered by a follower of Mir Jafar's, brother-in-law of Alivardi Khan.

Mir Jafar was recognised as Nawab of Bengal by the British. He gave the Company the right to hold land over all the country south of Calcutta i. e. the 24 Parganas.. Clive received a jagir for his services. The battle of Plassey decided the fate of Bengal and, in a way, of all India.

c. Strife among the Mohamedan princes in the Punjab led Ghazni-ud-din, son of the Governor, to ask the Marathas for aid against his rivals. The Marathas under Raguba, son of Baji Rao I, occupied the Punjab. They now held sway almost over the whole of India from the Himalayas and the Indus to Tanjore. 1758.

Alamgir II was murdered in 1759.

SHAH ALUM II.

1759-
1806.

Shah Alum II was the son of Alamgir II and was the last of the Mogul Emperors. His reign witnesses the struggle between rival political powers for the supremacy in India and the extinction of the Mogul Empire.

POLITICAL POWERS IN INDIA :—

1760

A. THE CHIEF MOHAMEDAN RULERS WERE :—Shah Alam, nominal Emperor of MOHAMEDAN. Delhi ; Ahmad Shah Abdalli, or Durrani, ruler of the Punjab and Amir of Afghanistan;

Shuja-ud-doulah, Governor of Oudh ; Mir Kasim, Nawab of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, but under the British ; the Nizam Ali at Hyderabad, Deccan ; Hyder Ali, ruler of Mysore and parts of the Carnatic ; Mohamed Ali, ruler of parts of the Carnatic but under the British.

B. THE CHIEF HINDU RULERS WERE :—

HINDU. The Peshwa, ruler over the Maharashthra ; Scindia, over the larger part of the Central Provinces ; Holkar, over Bhopal and a part of the Central Provinces ; the Gaekwar, over Guzarat ; the Rajput Chieftains, in Rajputana ; the Sikhs, over a part of the Punjab.

C. THE FOREIGN POWERS WERE :—

FOREIGN. The French, who however, had had their power broken by Sir Eyre Coote at Wandiwash. Pondicherry, their capital had fallen. This was the ruin of their hopes of an 1761. Empire in India.

The British, having secured Madras and a hold on the Carnatic, were settling firm in Bengal and were thus the strongest foreign political power.

THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY.

The Nizam of Hyderabad, Hyder Ali and his son Tippu of Mysore, the Maratha Confederacy and the British were involved in

the tussle for supremacy. The Nizam of Hyderabad was the weakest and, after being preyed upon by Hyder and the Marathas, came under British protection. Both the Marathas and the British waged war against the Sultan of Mysore who finally gave in to the latter. The contest between the Marathas and the British was enduring. It ended in favour of the British. Neither the Nizam of Hyderabad nor the Sultan of Mysore came into conflict with the Mogul in the North. The British and the Marathas did so.

THE
MARATHA
POWER.

a. The Maratha Power, which had grown formidable, met with a serious check at Panipat. This reverse put an end to the **1761.** sovereign rule of the Peshwa over the other Maratha Chiefs. In its stead, a Confederacy of the Chiefs was formed. By it the Maratha Power was built up again. From 1771-1803 Shah Alam was under its control. Under Mahadaji Scindia the Confederacy grew very powerful. It could have overcome and annexed the territory of the Nizam and that of Mysore. This conquest if consolidated would have made them the masters of the South of India. Their power was, at that time, the most dreaded. Had they conquered the South and mastered the North firmly, the British would have been driven out of India sooner or later. But internal

disunion frustrated this. By the Treaty of Salbai, the Maratha Power acknowledged 1782. British influence in the North. The Treaty of Bassein next broke the Confederacy. In 1802. the centre, it lost territory to the British by the Treaties of Surji Anjungaon and Deogaon; 1802. nevertheless, in 1805 it still stood the rival of 1803. the British for supremacy in India.

THE BRITISH	b. Ever since Clive's victory at Plassey, the British grew in power in Bengal. They had made Mir Jafar, Nawab of Bengal,
POWER.	Bihar and Orissa. As he proved a failure, Mir Kassim, his son-in-law, was appointed in his place. Mir Kassim gave the British
MIR KASSIM.	Burdwan, Midnapur, and Chittagong and agreed to pay the debts of Mir Jafar. Mir Kassim showed skill and judgment as a ruler. He made up his mind to free himself from the control of the British and removed his capital from Murshidabad to Monghir. Under a "firman" from the Mogul Emperor the British did not pay transit duties on its merchandise. They also extended this privilege to their own Indian servants. Thus Mir Kassim lost his revenue and trade was hampered. So Mir Kassim abolished all transit duties throughout his dominions. The British demanded the repeal of that decree; he refused. Ellis, the British agent at Patna captured the town, but Mir

Kassim soon retook it : a British force took Murshidabad, Geriah, and Monghir ; Mir Kassim had only Patna left ; he threatened to put Ellis and the other prisoners to death at Patna, if the British advanced farther. The British advanced ; Mir Kassim ordered his officers to slaughter the prisoners ; his Indian officers nobly refused ; but a European adventurer, named Walter Reinhardt, carried out the massacre. Patna was taken soon after. Mir Kassim then fled to Oudh, and, with the help of the Nawab of Oudh, Shuja-ud-doulah, advanced against the British, who, under Major Munro, defeated them first at Baxar and next year captured Chunar 1764. and Allahabad and thus completed the military conquest of Bengal and Bihar.

The victory at Baxar led to the Treaty of 1765. Allahabad with the following results :—

a. Shah Alam was given the districts of Allahabad and Korah and came under British protection.

b. The Nawab of Bengal and Bihar retained his title but was pensioned and, though outwardly the distribution of justice, the disposal of offices, the civil administration and all other rights to the dignity of his position were left in his hands, the British really governed. Two Indian deputies of

the Nawab carried on the general outward administration but they were under the actual control of the Company. Hence arose what is known as the Double Government of Bengal.

c. And to give a legal position to the Double Government, Clive secured from Shah Alam the grant of the Diwani, i. e. the right to collect the revenue of Bengal, Bihar, and the northern part of Orissa. British officials supervised sub-ordinate Indians who actually collected the revenue. In return for the grant, 26 lakhs ($2\frac{1}{2}$ million rupees now) had to be paid annually to Shah Alam.

This left the British as the chief political power in Hindustan.

Shah Alam remained under British protection till 1771 when the Marathas under Mahadaji Scindia took Delhi. Scindia offered Delhi to Shah Alam for a large sum of money. This was agreed to. Shah Alam then left British protection for that of Scindia. Thereupon the British refused to pay the 26 lakhs for the Diwani. Shah Alam ascended the throne of Delhi again but rivals opposed him. One of these, Gulam Kadir, took Delhi and blinded Shah Alam. Mahadaji Scindia captured Kadir and put him to death. But on the defeat of Mahadaji

1765-
1771.

Scindia by the British in 1803, General Lake took Shah Alam prisoner. He was pensioned and died at Allahabad in 1806.

Hostilities broke out in the South between the Marathas and the Nizam of Hyderabad. The latter was badly beaten at Karda, and placed himself under the protection of the Company. 1795.

While the British became the chief political power in Hindustan, it waged war against Mysore. The result left it the masters of the South from sea to sea. 1799.

In the West, the British and the Marathas had come into conflict but, in 1806, when the Mogul Empire had crumbled away, they still stood awaiting the final test of their rival power. 1806.

NOTE :—THE RISE AND FALL OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE.

CAUSES.

Its Rise: —a. Akbar was a great administrator and built up a strong system of organisation. Shah Jahan, a stern man, kept a firm hand over the whole Empire. Aurangzeb maintained the system in working order. Jahangir, though the least able of the first four Mogul Emperors, was superior to other Indian rulers of his day. For a century and a half, these four Mogul sovereigns built, 1560-1707.

extended and preserved the Empire. This unusual combination of long reigns gave a show of stability to the Mogul Empire.

b. Akbar was a most successful general and his military system was far superior to anything of the kind in India. It was still effective enough in the time of Aurangzeb.

c. The Hindu support of the throne was cleverly won by Akbar's tolerant policy and by his encouragement of inter-marriage between Hindus and Mohamedans.

CAUSES

Its fall :—*a.* The Mogul Empire had not taken deep root. Its existence depended mainly on the character of the reigning sovereign and on his degree of military power. After Aurangzeb, no great Mogul ruler appeared ; the army after his death lost its efficiency.

b. Mogul Rule lacked popular support. Akbar alone won the confidence of the Hindus. Aurangzeb lost all Hindu sympathy.

c. The long absence of Aurangzeb in the Deccan broke up systematic government in the North. State oppression followed and, with it, came poverty and financial ruin.

d. The overthrow of the Mohamedan States of Bijapur and Golconda removed a check on the Marathas in the Deccan.

c. The invasion of India by Nadir Shah who sacked Delhi ; the rise of the Sikhs ; the steady growth of the Maratha power and their repeated victories over the Moguls in the Deccan, in Orissa and in the North of India : the foundation of the British power in Bengal and in Southern India through the defeat of the Mogul Nawabs—all contributed their share in the great downfall.

SECOND SECTION.

THE MARATHA PERIOD

1620-1818.

CHAPTER VII.

The Marathas.

THE RACE

The Marathas are a Hindu people that inhabit the Maharashtra. The Maharashtra has for its northern boundary the Satpura Range, for its eastern the Wainganga River ; on its southern, Goa ; and on its western, the Arabian Sea. Its chief towns were Poona, Satara, Kholapur and Nasik. As a race the Marathas are small, sturdy, well-built, active, persevering and wily. In the thirteenth century they were known as the Yadhava Power.

Under Sivaji Bhonsle of Poona, their power revived and was re-established in the Deccan. But none of Sivaji's successors had his talents. The family lost its influence. The control of the Maharashtra passed into the hands of Balaji Visvanath Rao, a man of humble birth but of great gifts. He had his claim to rule confirmed by Mohamed Shah,

the Mogul Emperor, and made hereditary. Under him began the Peshwa rule. Six successors followed him. It was the third Peshwa, Balaji Baji Rao, who brought the Peshwa rule to its height. At the third battle of Panipat, the Afghan Ahmad Shah Durrani broke the Peshwa power. Its place was taken by the Maratha Confederacy. This reached its zenith of political power and limit of territorial expansion in 1795. Had it won over the Nizam of Haidarabad and Tippu Sultan of Mysore or conquered both, it would have mastered all India. But it continually harried these Mohamedan powers. The Peshwaship, though a weakened sovereignty, was ever a coveted honour. The desire of possessing it caused jealous ambition and internal strife. Events led to the Peshwa appealing to the British for aid. By the Treaty of Salbai, Mahadaji Scindia the most powerful of the Maratha chiefs, acknowledged the political power of the British in the North. Twenty years later, the Peshwa in self-defence against his brother chiefs, signed the Treaty of Bassein which cut at the heart of the Confederacy. Three wars followed with the British and ended in the overthrow of a Power that had never struck its roots deep but had grown and thrived through success in irregular warfare.

THE BHONSLE RULE.

1646-
1714.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE MARATHA POWER.

SHAHJI
BHONSLE.

The Bhonsle family possessed land free from all rent at Verole near Ellora. It claimed to trace its descent from the Rajput house of Udaipur ; it was one of the noted and highly esteemed of the Maratha families. Shahji Bhonsle, the head of the family in 1620, commanded a squadron of horse under the Sultan of Ahmednagar. Later on he went over to the service of the Raja of Bijapur and was confirmed by the latter in the jagirs of Poona and Sopra. For his services in the Carnatic, he got the jagirs of Indapur, Bramati and several of the Mawals or hilly valleys near Poona, and also the jagirs of Bangalore, Kolar and Uscota, Sira, Arni, Porto Novo and Tanjore.

SIVAJI.

1627-
1680.

Sivaji, the son of Shahji Bhonsle, was born at Saoner. In his early youth, he was brought up at Poona by Dadaji Kondeo and, later on, by the poets Ramdas and Tukaram.

HIS CAREER
AS SOLDIER.

He resolved to restore the independence of the ancient Yadhava kingdom which,

after the battle of Deogiri, had been subdued by the Afghan, Alla-ud-din. With his ^{1294.} ~~1648.~~ ^{1648.} Mawalis, he took Torna, built Raigarh, and got possession of Kondaneh and ten other forts, among which were Lohgarh and Rajmahji. This beginning of his resolution aroused the suspicion of the Bijapur Government.

For ten years, it kept Shahji Bhonsle as a hostage for his son's good behaviour. When Shahji was released, Sivaji resumed his plans and took ten other forts and built ^{1649.} new ones. Aurangzeb, as Governor of the Deccan, now made war on Bijapur. Sivaji shrewdly helped him and in return was ^{1657.} allowed to keep his conquests and to rule the Konkan. But when Sivaji took Kalyan, a large Mogul force was sent against him, and ^{1659.} met him at Pratabgarh under Afzul Khan. But Sivaji, feigning submission, killed Afzul Khan and routed his army. From now on, Sivaji held sway over the Konkan. When ^{1662.} his father died, Sivaji assumed the title of ^{1664.} Raja and struck coins in his own name. He also built up a fleet and with it plundered the British Settlement at Surat and aroused Aurangzeb's anger by levying blackmail on pilgrims sailing to Mecca. Prince Muazzam and Jai Singh of Jaipur were sent against

him, defeated him and forced him to agree at Purandhar to restore whatever territory he had taken from the Moguls ; out of 32 forts, he was allowed to keep 12 ; the rest of his possessions were held as jagirs under the Mogul Emperor. Raja Rai Singh of Jodhpur now persuaded him to visit and pay homage to Aurangzeb at Agra ; there he was humiliated and imprisoned but escaped to Raigarh. On his return, he not only recovered 1667. all his possessions but defeated Bijapur, Golconda and Khandesh and exacted chauth from them as well as from six Mogul Subas in the Deccan. With great pomp he crowned 1674. himself king at Raigarh. Then he invaded 1676-1677. the Carnatic, took all his father's jagirs (Sira, Bangalore, Arni and Tanjore) from his brother Venkaji and captured Jingi and Vellore : but restored all his father's estates to Venkaji on condition of receiving a share of the revenue. On his way back he helped the Raja of Bijapur against the 1679. Moguls, and in return got Kopal and Bellary and the sovereignty over Tanjore. He died at Raigarh. 1680.

B. AS
ADMINIS-
TRATOR.

A. Civil administration :—His Government was on a Hindu pattern. Supreme authority lay with the Raja guided by a Council of eight Ministers who based the whole administration on the principles of the

Shastras or Hindu Scriptures. The chief minister was called the Peshwa : the other members were heads of the several civil and military departments. His territories were divided into 14 districts or talukas, each under its own official staff. Each village had its own headman or patel. Justice lay in the hands of the panchayats, i. e. local town or village juries.

B. Revenue System :—This was assessed on the crop ; the state claimed two-fifths as its normal share. But most of the revenue of the Maratha State came either from plunder or from payments called chauth or “the fourth” part ; it amounted to one-fourth of the revenue in a district that, though belonging to another power, came under Maratha protection. Chauth was always a payment forced on a district. Sometimes an extra tenth of the revenue was extorted. This was called sardesmukhi.

C. Military :—The army was well organised. It was under a commander-in-chief called a Sarnobat or Senapati. It originally consisted of infantry only. Later on cavalry was introduced. Regular drill was not practised. During the rainy season the army retired into quarters but campaigning began again in October after the Dashra

festival. Discipline was strict. All war-booty belonged to the Raja. Soldiers received payment not in land but in cash. Hill-forts played the most important part in defensive power. A fleet capable of carrying 4,000 men was stationed at Kolaba and not only defended the coast line from Kalyan to Goa but checked the pirates of Janjira and plundered rich Mogul ships.

HIS
CHARACTER.

Sivaji was kind, cheerful and affectionate and very brave, daring and wily; though a devout Hindu, he was tolerant enough towards Islam; he was very simple in his habits; though unable to read or write, he possessed great talent as a soldier and statesman; he achieved his aim, i. e. to restore the Hindu Yadhava power in the Deccan. The Marathas consider him their national hero.

SAMBHAJI.

1680-
1689.

On Sivaji's death, Sambhaji, his eldest son, succeeded him. He was a good soldier and was victorious against the Portuguese; but he was too fond of pleasure and was neither so deeply religious nor so keen a patriot as his father; he was an incapable ruler and taxed his people heavily and paid his soldiers badly. After the overthrow of Bijapur and Golconda by Aurangzeb, many of the Marathas engaged in this undertaking

1686-
87.

were left unemployed ; these Sambhaji could have used successfully against the Moguls ; he, however, let the opportunity pass. Anarchy spread and thus Aurangzeb more easily conquered the Konkan. Sambhaji and his minister, Kalusha, were taken prisoners, brought before Aurangzeb and killed, as some say, for refusing to become Mohamedans, or, as others say, for too strongly abusing their captors. Sahu, his son six years old, was sent to Delhi as a hostage.

RAJA RAM.

1689-
1700.

The Maratha council appointed Raja Ram, a younger son of Sivaji's, regent of the kingdom, and resolved to avenge Sambhaji's murder. They harassed Aurangzeb's army and advanced to Jingi ; but Zulfikar Khan, an old Mogul general, surrounded Jingi, 1700. Through bribery Raja Ram escaped. Aurangzeb, however, took Satara. Raja Ram died that year.

TARA-BAI.

1700-
1708.

His widow, Tara Bai, acted as regent for her son, Sivaji, till 1708. She took up the struggle against Aurangzeb and harried him a great deal. On the death of Aurangzeb, 1708. Sahu, the son of Sambhaji was sent back

from the court of Delhi. and claimed the throne at Satara. This led to civil strife. Tara Bai strove hard to keep the throne for her own son, but she was deserted and Sahu succeeded.

SAHU.

1708-
1714.

Anarchy spread further in the Maharashtra, which would have broken up but for Balaji Visvanath Rao. He was the Peshwa, or Prime Minister, and soon established a settled form of Government. Through him Hussein Ali, the Mogul Governor of the Deccan was defeated, and chauth was levied on the Mogul territory in the Deccan. Sahu was no ruler ; he cared more for pleasure; on his death Balaji Vishvanath Rao succeeded.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Peshwa Rule.

1714-
1761.

BALAJI VISVANATH RAO.

1714-
1720.

Balaji Visvanath Rao was the first Peshwa. He gained influence in Delhi by assisting the Sayyid brothers against Farruksiyar, the Mogul Emperor. In return Mohamed Shah, the next Mogul Emperor, gave him the right of collecting chauth throughout the Deccan and acknowledged him as sovereign over the hereditary dominions of Sivaji; thus the Bhonsle dynasty was quietly ousted and the Peshwaship made hereditary in Visvanath's own family. He died in 1720. Six Peshwas succeeded him; the third lost the sovereign rule over the Marathas, and he and his successors then ruled over the Konkan only, though remaining the nominal head of the Maratha Confederacy.

BAJI RAO I.

1720-
1740-

Baji Rao I was the second and the greatest Peshwa; he was a soldier, politician and ruler; his aim was so to develop the Maratha

power as to make it paramount in India. He extended its influence in Hindustan and then in the Konkan.

In Hindustan he established the Maratha power in Malwa and Gujarāt and advanced to Delhi. He defeated Asaf Jah at Bhopal and forced him to sign a convention at Seronje. By this Baji Rao got Malwa and the territory between the Narbada and the Chambal and 50 lakhs of rupees.

In the Konkan he made war on and crippled 1739 the Portuguese power and took Bassein. He prevented trouble in the Maharashtra by employing powerful chiefs under him to collect chauth in the Deccan; thus these were kept far from Satara and its court; these chiefs were at first loyal; but learning how to govern by themselves they gradually became independent. Such chiefs were Holkar of Indore, Scindia of Gwalior, the Gaekwar of Baroda, and the Bhonsle of Berar.

BALAJI BAJI RAO.

1740-
1761.

During the reign of Balaji Baji Rao the Peshwaship reached the zenith of its sovereign power but received its death-blow. Balaji Baji Rao removed the seat of government from Satara to Poona. His aim was

that of his predecessor. Maratha sway was extended in the north-east, the north and in the south.

In the north-east Raghugi Bhonsle of Berar overran and collected chauth from Bengal and the greater part of Orissa. He secured Cuttack, Balasore and extensive districts from the Nizam.

In the north Holkar subdued Bundelkhand and levied chauth from it.

In the south the Peshwa invaded Mysore and the Carnatic and levied chauth. He then sent a large force against Salabat Jang, the third son of Nizam Ali, who had invaded Ahmednagar. He defeated him at Udgir, and by a treaty got the forts Daulatabad, Asirgarh, Bijapur and Aurangabad. This victory marked the zenith of the Peshwa power. 1760.

PANIPAT.

In 1752 Ahmad Shah Abdalli or Durrani, 1752. had received the Punjab from Ahmad Shah the Emperor of Delhi. In 1756 he had left for Afghanistan. During his absence Ghazni-ud-din, the vazir of Delhi, ruled the Punjab. Owing to rivalry among the Punjab chiefs, Ghazni-ud-din invited the Peshwa's brother, Raghuba, to help him to rule the Punjab. But Raghuba did more.

He overran the Punjab, and took Lahore. On hearing this Ahmad Shah Abdalli was 1758 roused to fury, returned, and broke the Peshwa power at the third battle of Panipat, the greatest pitched battle that had been 1761. fought for several centuries between Hindus and Mohamedans. For the time being, it clean swept the Marathas out of Northern India.

CHAPTER IX.

The Confederacy.

1761-
1803.

In this period the Maratha Power grows towards and reaches its height. But henceforward the Marathas were never quite a united power acting under the Peshwa. The defeat at Panipat brought about the death of Balaji Baji Rao. The Maratha chiefs now became more independent than before. Hence they did not form a real united government but at most only a confederacy. This confederacy extended its boundaries on the south almost to the river Tungabhadra ; on the east to Cuttack and Balasore ; on the north up to the Sone, Ganges and Chambal rivers. The Peshwa continued to be the nominal chief of this Confederacy.

MADHAVRAO I.

1761
1772.

Madhavrao, son of Balaji Baji Rao, became the fourth Peshwa. He was then 17

years old. Raghuba, his uncle, acted as regent. The Peshwa was ruler now of the Konkan only, but was acknowledged as the nominal head of the Confederacy. During his short reign, there was a partial revival of Maratha power. Its extension steadily continued :

A. Madhavrao led an expedition against Haidar Ali of Mysore, forced him to yield territory and to pay 32 lakhs. As Haidar delayed payment, he met with defeat at Cherkuli and was forced to pay.

1769.
1771.

1771.

B. In 1769 a Maratha army under Scindia and Holkar crossed the Chambal and entered Hindustan, and levied tribute from the Rajputs and Jats.

C. In 1771 Mahadaji Scindia overran Rohilkhand, took Delhi and placed Shah Alam II on the throne.

Madhavrao died in 1772.

NARAYAN RAO succeeded as the FIFTH PESHWA, but was murdered within a year.

MADHAVRAO II.

1773-
1795.

On the death of Narayan Rao, Raghuba the brother of Balaji Baji Rao, sought the Peshwaship. War broke out against the Nizam and Hadar; Raghuba won but treated them so leniently that he offended the other

Maratha chiefs under him. At this time Madhavrao II was born. He was the posthumous son of Narayan Rao. Immediately both the leading statesmen in the Konkan and the Maratha chiefs took up the cause of the infant. They formed a council of Regency under the minister, Nana Farnavis. The result was civil discord that led to the First Maratha War.

THE FIRST MARATHA WAR.

1775-
1782.

WARREN
HASTINGS
GOVR.-GEN.

CAUSES.

Raghuba defeated the Council of Regency, but instead of going on to Poona and taking the throne, he withdrew to Malwa and entered into a treaty with the Bombay Government, called the Treaty of Surat. By this treaty Raghuba was to give up Salsette, Bassein and some parts of Gujarat and to pay the expenses of the war. The British agreed to help him to the Peshwaship. But Warren Hastings, the Governor of Calcutta, refused to ratify the Treaty of Surat because 1775. he had not been consulted as Governor-General. On his part, he entered into a treaty with the Council of Regency, called the Treaty of Purandhar. By this Treaty, 1776. only Salsette was to be given to the British for their help. Thus the Government of Calcutta opposed the Government of Bombay.

But the Directors in England condemned Warren Hastings and the Purandhar Treaty and stood for the Bombay Government and the Treaty of Surat. Warren Hastings was thus obliged to support the Bombay Government.

The Council of Regency, with Nana Farnavis as its head, intrigued with the French and received French ambassadors at the court of Poona. As England was then at war with France, (the American War of Independence), Warren Hastings more willingly took up the cause of Raghuba and declared war against the Council of Regency, his main object being to frustrate French designs.

Matters now grew complicated. The Nizam formed a coalition with all the Maratha chiefs (except the Gaekwar) and with Haidar Ali of Mysore, to crush the British power. The causes of the Nizam's annoyance were the British annexation of Guntur in the Northern Circars and the fact that he strongly disliked Raghuba. But Warren Hastings got out of the difficulty by bribing the Bhonsle of Berar, who permitted him to send an army under Colonel Pearse through his territory to the south of India against Haidar Ali, who was defeated at Arni in 1782. The Nizam was made neutral by Guntur being restored to him.

CONTEST.

Mahadaji Scindia, the most powerful member of the Council of Regency, defeated a British force sent from Bombay first at Telagaon and then at Wargaon. Here the Convention of Wargaon was signed by which Colonel Carnac the political officer accompanying the British force and General 1779. Carnac commanding it, agreed to give up all territory received from the Marathas since 1773 and to surrender Raghuba. As Carnac was acting Civil Commissioner at the time and had no authority to make so grave a convention, it was not ratified by the Board of Directors. Hastings, therefore, ordered Colonel Goddard to march from Bengal to Poona. Goddard was to propose a renewal of the Purandhar treaty if the Convention of Wargaon should be abandoned and no French troops be admitted into Maratha country. The Council of Regency refused this proposal and demanded the surrender of Raghuba. Fighting was renewed. Colonel Goddard took Ahmedabad and Bassein. Major Popham took Lahore and 1780. Gwalior. Colonel Carnac defeated Scindia in Malwa. Scindia, while willing to aid the Maratha confederacy, aimed at making himself independent of it by establishing his own paramount sphere of political influence in the Northern Maratha possessions.

Peace with the British, the only rival power he feared, was essential to his purpose. Before the end of 1781, Scindia agreed to make peace and to win the Council of Regency over to accept the terms proposed by Hastings through Goddard. This led to the Treaty of Salbai. 1781. 1782.

RESULT.

SALBAI.

By it, Salsette was to be given to the British. All other Europeans except the Portuguese were to be excluded from Maratha territory. An annual pension of three lakhs was to be given to Raghoba. Haider Ali was to be forced to give up the territory taken from the British and from the Nawab of Arcot. Broach was to be given to Scindia, because of his kind treatment of the British at Wargaon. His lost possessions, except Gwalior, were also to be restored. Bassein and a part of Guzarat were to be returned to the Peshwa.

This treaty is a landmark in British history. It secured peace for 20 years between the British and Marathas and made the British practically the leading political authority in India. In the eyes of the British, Mahadaji Scindia became, in place of the Peshwa, the virtual head and representative of the Maratha nation and of its power in Northern India. His independent position as a Maratha chief was formally acknowledged

in 1786. Towards the close of his career, however, he was active in plotting the overthrow of the British as the political rival to his sway over India.

LORD
CORNWALLIS
GOV. GEN.

After the Treaty of Salbai, the Maratha growth reached its height. Conquests were made in the South, north and north-west :

A. The Marathas combined with the Nizam to despoil Tipu who had grown too arrogant. They forced him to cede a district and pay 45 lakhs as tribute.

B. In 1789 Mahadaji Scindia annexed the provinces of Agra and Delhi.

C. In 1792 the Rajputs were subdued and made to pay tribute to Mahadaji Scindia.

The Marathas for aiding the British in the 3rd Mysore war were given Tipu's territory between the Kistna and the Vardha by Lord Cornwallis.

SIR JOHN
SHORE
GOV. GEN.

D. As the Nizam had not paid the tribute agreed upon after the battle of Udgir (1760), the Peshwa defeated him at Khardā, or Kurdla. This was the last time the Maratha chiefs were united under the banner of the Peshwa. They now held sway from Delhi to the Tungabhadra river. **1795.**

Madhavrao II. the Peshwa, was very fond of his cousin Baji Rao, the son of Raghuba, Nana Farnavis, however, ordered Baji Rao to be imprisoned and prevented all communication between Baji Rao and the Peshwa. In a fit of gloom, Madhavrao threw himself from the terrace of his palace and died a few days after. He was only 22 years old.



CHAPTER X.

The Maratha Decline.

1803-
1818.

BAJI RAO II.

1796-
1818.

LORD
WELLESLEY
GOVR.-GEN.

After many intrigues, Baji Rao II, son of Ragubha, succeeded as the seventh and the last Peshwa.

The break up of the Maratha Confederacy now set in. This was due to rivalry between the Maratha chiefs. In 1800 Nana Farnavis died and Maratha affairs fell into confusion. Strife arose between Daulat Rao Scindia and Jaswant Rao Holkar who were both secretly aiming at the supreme control of the Maharashtra. Baji Rao, the Peshwa, had executed the brother of Holkar. To avenge this murder Holkar marched against the Peshwa. Daulat Rao Scindia came to the aid of the Peshwa and plundered Indore. Jaswant Rao Holkar sacked Ujjain and defeated Daulat Scindia at Poona.

1801.

Baji Rao II, thereupon fled to Bassein and put himself under the protection of the British. He signed the Treaty of Bassein. 1802.

By it, a subsidiary British force was to be kept by the Peshwa, who paid 26 lakhs for it ; all Europeans of a nation hostile to the British were to be excluded from the Peshwa's court ; the Peshwa was to give up Surat, and to allow the British to settle his disputes with the Nizam and the Gaekwar ; the Peshwa was to be a faithful ally and the British were to protect him.

This Treaty marks the extinction of the independent power of the Peshwa. It so angered the other Maratha chiefs that war against the British followed. The Maratha chiefs saw that it cut at the root of their Confederacy. They realised that if the Peshwa became a dependent of the British Government, the power of the British would in time reduce them to a state of subordination. Indeed the Treaty practically gave the Peshwa's territory to the British. It made it impossible for the Confederacy to become the supreme power in India. So the Maratha chiefs led by the Raja of Berar refused to acknowledge the Treaty and combined against the British.

THE SECOND MARATHA WAR.

1802-
1803.

CAUSES.

A. Its causes were: the aim of both Scindia and of Holkar had been to control, each by himself, the Peshwa and, in his name to rule over the Maharashtra. But, by the Treaty of Bassein, the Peshwa had put himself under British protection. This transferred the whole weight of the Peshwa's name and resources to a foreign power and frustrated the ambition of the two chiefs and filled them with bitter resentment. It was a blow, too, to their national feeling. They rejected the Treaty.

B. Raghuji, the Bhonsle of Berar, then the most powerful chief of the Confederacy, dreaded the British. He also secretly cherished a claim to the Peshwaship. So he refused to acknowledge the Treaty of Bassein, persuaded Holkar to make a truce with Daulat Rao Scindia, and threw in his lot with the latter. Holkar remained neutral as he longed to see Daulat Rao Scindia humbled and did not fear Raghuji Bhonsle.

C. Daulat Scindia and Raghuji Bhonsle massed their forces on the frontier of the Nizam's territory. Wellesley called on them to withdraw as the Nizam was a protected ally of the British. They refused to do so.

War followed. The British forces were under General Wellesley and General Lake, two very able leaders. The former was ordered to attack the Maratha forces on the Nizam's frontier; the latter was to attack Scindia's possessions in the north-west.

CONTEST.

A. Campaign against the Bhonsle of 1802. Berar: General Wellesley took Ahmednagar and defeated both the Bhonsle and Daulat Scindia at the critical battle of Assaye. He again defeated the Bhonsle at Argaon, Burhanpur, Asirgarh and at Gwaligarh.

These defeats forced the Bhonsle to sign the subsidiary Treaty of Deogaon, by which: 1803.

The British got Cuttack, Balasore, and secured a part of Berar for the Nizam; no European of a nation hostile to the British was to be received by the Bhonsle; a British Resident was to stay at Nagpur; and all claims on the Nizam had to be renounced.

B. Campaign against Daulat Rao Scindia: 1802. General Lake took Aligarh, Agra, Delhi, and won decisively at Laswari. A British army in Gujarat took Broach, and Champanir. Bundelkhand was overrun. Daulat Rao Scindia signed the Treaty of Surji Anjungaon.

By this treaty: the British got Broach, Bundelkhand and the Doab *i.e.* the country between the Ganges and the Jumna, together with all the territory south of the Chambal including Agra and Delhi; and all the territory north of Jaipur and Jodhpur; no European of a nation hostile to the British was to be received by Scindia; a British Resident was to stay at his capital in Gwalior; all claims on the Nizam, Peshwa and the Gaekwar had to be renounced; the Peshwa received Ahmednagar and the Nizam an extensive strip of territory; the independent rights of the Rajput chiefs in Rajputana and Malwa had to be acknowledged.

RESULT.

Apart from the loss of territory, the Bhonsle and Daulat Scindia, two powerful Maratha chiefs, had really surrendered their independence to the British by the subsidiary treaties. Both chiefs had to acknowledge the Treaty of Bassein. But peace was by no means secured. Though the Bhonsle and Daulat Scindia had lost heavily, they were not crushed. Their power was soon to match itself against the British again. It was Jaswant Rao Holkar, however, who brought about the next conflict.

THE THIRD MARATHA WAR.

1804-
1805.

A. Jaswant Rao Holkar not only rejected the Treaty of Bassein but was highly

displeased on hearing of the Treaties of Surji Anjungaon and Deogaon. He retired to Rajputana and attacked the Rajput chiefs both in Rajputana and Malwa. because they, having placed themselves under British protection, refused him tribute.

B. The Marquess of Wellesley called on him to desist from these attacks. Holkar refused. War was begun again.

According to the plan of campaign, General Wellesley was to attack Jaswant Rao Holkar in Rajputana; General Lake to attack him from the Deccan; Colonel Murray to help General Lake from Gujarat.

CONTEST.

General Lake began operations and was stopped by the rains and left the army in charge of Colonel Monson. Monson crossed the Chambal, but was checked and had to retreat through the Pass of Mokhundra. The Jat Raja of Bharatpur and Daulat Scindia now joined Holkar. Colonel Monson, who had relied on Colonel Murray helping him from Gujarat, was now forced to retire to Agra. Holkar took Muttra, besieged Delhi but was defeated by General Lake at Farakabad. The Jat Raja of Bharatpur was defeated at Dig. Murray next took Indore, Holkar's capital. But it now happened that the Marquess of Wellesley left for England,

1804.

1804.

having been recalled by the Board of Directors. Sir George Barlow succeeded him.

SIR GEORGE
BARLOW.

Treaty with Holkar : Barlow stood for 1805. non-intervention in Indian affairs and so stopped the war. He gave back all the territory taken from Holkar. General Lake strongly protested, for Sir George Barlow's policy not only deprived the British of victory but also betrayed the Rajputs, who were thus again put under Holkar. Sir George Barlow went further and confirmed the Treaty of Surji Anjungaon with Scindia by restoring Gwalior.

RESULT.

This treaty tarnished the British power and left the struggle for final victory undecided. The clash came before long. The ill-feeling on the part of the leading Maratha Chiefs against the British deepened when they were called upon to help the latter in crushing the Pindaris, with whom they were in close touch.

THE PINDARIS.

The Pindaris were bands of lawless men belonging to all classes and creeds, who lived by organised plunder. Their haunts lay in Malwa, east of Ujjain and north of the Nerbada. and between Bhopal and the dominions of Scindia and Holkar. They were first heard of in the struggle between Sivaji and Aurangzeb. They were always

in league with the Marathas, chiefly as mercenaries in the armies of Holkar of Indore and Scindia of Gwalior. They numbered several thousands. Their forays were made in bodies of from two to three thousand horsemen under a chosen leader. Neither tent nor baggage was carried. The horsemen rode forty to fifty miles a day towards the tract they would raid. On arriving there they would make a clean sweep of all valuable property, burn what they did not want, massacre and commit the most horrid atrocities upon the inhabitants, and vanish. They ravaged India from Guzarat to Gangam. In 1816 the Northern Circars were fearfully dealt with by these brutal hordes. 1816.

The Marquess of Hastings decided upon crushing them utterly. He understood full well that his resolve would probably lead to a Maratha War. So he proceeded diplomatically, obtained the help of the Nawab of Bhopal and proposed to the leading Maratha Chiefs that they should help. These returned an evasive reply. This was expected. Hastings, nothing daunted, got together a large army and planned an encircling movement, the largest ever known in India, to entrap and destroy the Pindaris and thus end the lawlessness which had prevailed for long in Central India. Hastings com-

manded one army in Hindustan and Sir 1817
 Thomas Hislop the army coming up from
 the Deccan. Cholera and the difficulties
 arising from the Maratha Chiefs hindered
 the attack from meeting with success. Finally the Pindaris were driven out from their 1818.
 haunts and their strength shattered. Amir
 Khan, leader of the Pathan rovers among the
 Pindaris, was induced to settle down as the
 Nawab of Tonk in Rajputana, where his
 successors still rule. Karim Khan, another
 Pindari leader, was given an estate in Ganeshpur now in the Gorakhpur or Basti District;
 it is still held by his descendants. Chitu,
 the most formidable of the leaders, was pursued relentlessly until he sought refuge in
 a jungle near Asigarh, where a tiger devoured him.

This destruction of the Pindaris fanned
 Maratha hostility into flame and hastened
 on the last conflict between the British and
 the Maratha.

THE FOURTH MARATHA WAR.

THE
 MARQUESS OF
 HASTINGS
 GOVR.-GEN.

A. The Pindaris, a band of lawless robbers
 who had their headquarters in territory belonging to Daulat Scindia and Jaswant Holkar, were connected with the armies of these two chiefs and those of the Peshwa and the Bhonsle of Berar. The British

1816-
 1818.

CAUSES.

decided on crushing them not only to put an end to their devastating raids, but also for the sake of good order in Central India. The Maratha Chiefs were opposed to this aim, and when asked for aid, rendered little.

B. Baji Rao II, the last Peshwa, had signed the subsidiary Treaty of Bassein but he wanted to be rid of it. Trimbakji Daingle, his minister, planned to restore Maratha independence, with the aid of Daulat Scindia, Mulhar Rao Holkar and Appa Sahib, the Bhonsle of Berar. He proceeded to raise troops. He instigated the murder of Gangadar Shastri, the Gaekwar's ambassador, who had been sent on State business to the Peshwa in Poona. Monstuart Elphinstone, the British Resident at Bombay, forced the Peshwa to surrender Trimbakji; the latter was imprisoned at Thana but escaped. The Peshwa secretly helped him to raise troops. Elphinstone then obliged the Peshwa to sign a treaty at Poona, by which the Peshwa gave up Ahmednagar and the Konkan, agreed to hand over Trimbakji and to abide by the Treaty of Bassein. The Peshwa had no intention of keeping this treaty and prepared for war.

C. On the death in 1816 of Raghuji Bhonsle, Raja of Berar, Appa Sahib was

appointed Regent. He murdered the minor prince and made himself Raja, and plotted with Baji Rao II, the last Peshwa, against the British.

D. On the death of Jaswant Rao Holkar in 1811, his son Mulhar Rao Holkar, a minor, succeeded. The State Council of Indore, who ruled for him, was quite hostile towards the British and joined Baji Rao in his scheming against the British.

CONTEST

A. AGAINST THE PESHWA : Colonel Burr defeated Baji Rao at Kirkee. Bapu Gokhale, the Peshwa's Commander-in-Chief, was defeated at Ashti. Baji Rao fled to the Carnatic. In 1818 Captain Staunton successfully held Koregaon against the whole army of the Peshwa. Baji Rao surrendered and was deposed and kept as a State prisoner at Bithaur near Cawnpore. Trimbakji was imprisoned. A descendant of Sivaji's was given a portion of the Peshwa's territory as Raja of Satara till 1848, when it was annexed. The Bombay Presidency thus extended to nearly its present dimensions. Kolhapore retained its independence.

B. AGAINST THE BHONSLE :—Appa Sahib attacked the British residency at Nagpur. A fierce engagement took place on a neighbouring ridge known as Sitabaldi. Appa

Sahib was beaten there by Captain Fitzgerald and again at Nagpur City. An army of his was defeated at Jubbulpur. He fled to Jodhpur. A grandson of Raghuji Bhonsle was placed on the throne of Berar.

C. AGAINST HOLKAR:—Operations against Holkar were led by Sir Thomas 1817. Hislop, aided by Sir John Malcolm. They defeated Mulhar Rao Holkar in a stiff fight at Mahidpur. The Treaty of Mandeswar was signed by which Holkar placed his 1818. territory under British protection, ceded Khandesh, agreed to a British Resident staying at Indore and renounced all authority over the Rajputs.

The year 1818 marks an epoch in Indian History. The Maratha power was overthrown; its Chiefs and their States came under British protection; the British power was paramount in India.

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE MARATHAS.

A. THE RISE :—The social, religious and political awakening among the people of the Maharashtra in the 15th and 16th centuries.

B. The employment of the Marathas in the military service of the Sultans of Bijapur and Ahmednagar,

C. The intolerance of Aurangzeb towards Hinduism ; and his overthrow of Bijapur and Ahmednagar, which till then had been a Mohamedan check on the military power of the Marathas.

D. Sivaji's genius as a soldier and statesman, and the success of his national aim to restore the Yadhava Power in the Deccan.

E. The wise administration of the first two Peshwas.

F. The experience in ruling gained by the Maratha chiefs employed by the Peshwas in collecting chauth from subdued territories.

A. THE FALL :—Raghuba's defeat at 1761. Panipat. This broke the centralizing power of the Peshwa and split up the nation into groups under their own chiefs.

B. Growth of power and love of independence among the Maratha chiefs.

C. The growth led to :—Mahadaji Scindia's ambition to be supreme over the Marathas ; jealousy and enmity and finally want of union among the Maratha chiefs ; the Peshwa appealing to the British for assistance which led to wars, that, by the subsidiary treaties of Bassein, Deogaon, Surji Anjungaon and Mandeswar, made the Peshwa, the Bhonsle, Scindia and Holkar lose their independence to the British.

D. The later armies of the Marathas were not so wholly Maratha nor so strict in discipline as under Sivaji.

E. The difference of castes aggravated the disunion. The Peshwa and his council were Brahmins; Scindia and Holkar were Sudras; Raghuji Bhonsle was a Kshatriya.

F. The steady political growth and military organisation of the British.

CHAPTER XI.

Maratha Chieftainships.

THE BHONSLE
OF POONA.

A. The Bhonsle of Poona possessed land free of all rent at Verole near Ellora. It claimed descent from the Rajput house of Udaipur and was a noted and esteemed Maratha family. Shahji Bhonsle, the head of the family in 1620, commanded a squadron of horse under the Sultan of Ahmednagar. Later on he went over to the service of the Raja of Bijapur and was confirmed by the latter in his possession of the jagirs of Poona and Supa. For his services in the Carnatic, he received several jagirs near Poona, and in the Deccan and the South of India. When his son, the famous Sivaji, began his successful plan to restore the Maratha power to its former position under the Yadhavas, he was made a hostage of by the Raja of Bijapur and about 1649 was released but died not long after.

Sivaji, his son, carried out his plan to restore the Yadhava Kingdom and extended Maratha sway over the Konkan and the greater part of the Deccan. His was a life full of adventure and spent in warfare chiefly against Aurangzeb. He was a talented administrator and shrewd statesman. No name is more illustrious among the Marathas who consider him their national hero. After his death in 1680, his successors proved weak rulers. Sahu the last member of the family who held sway over the territory acquired by Sivaji, died in 1714 and his Prime Minister or Peshwa, Balaji Visvanath Rao, a man of humble birth but of great talent, seized the reins of government and secured for himself and his successors the hereditary possession of Sivaji's dominions. The Bhonsle family was thus quietly ousted and fell into obscurity. Its descendants, however, still rule at Kolhapur.

HOLKAR.

B. THE HOLKAR :—Mulhar Rao Holkar 1724. by his bravery and ability brought himself into notice in 1724. He founded the Holkar family and died in 1766. His grandson and son died shortly afterwards. Ahalya Bai, the widow of his son, made Tukaji Holkar, an experienced soldier but no relative of hers, commander of the army. She controlled the civil administration and was a

very able and remarkable woman. She died in 1795. Tukaji Holkar succeeded but died the same year. His third son Jaswant Rao succeeded him; he fought against the British in the 3rd Maratha War; he died in 1811. His son, Mulhar Rao, was defeated in the 4th 1817. Maratha War at Mahidpur, and signed the 1818. Treaty of Mandeswar, by which he lost his independence: his state and successors came under British protection. The capital of the state is Indore.

- SCINDIA. C. THE SCINDIA:—Kanuji founded this 1734.
house in 1734: he was slipper bearer to the Peshwa. His illegitimate son, Mahadaji Scindia, ruled from 1761-1794. The latter was the most powerful of the Maratha chiefs. He was a successful soldier: his army was the finest in India and was trained by the French officer De Boigne.
- CAREER. He was wounded at the 3rd battle of 1761.
Panipat. In 1779 he fought prominently in the 1st Maratha War, and defeated the British at Telegaon and forced them to sign the Convention of Wargaon. In 1782 he was acknowledged independent by the British in the treaty of Salbai and got Broach from them. He took Bundelkhand in 1786 and annexed the provinces of Agra and Delhi, and from 1771 had Shah Alam II,

the last Mogul Emperor, completely under his control. In 1790, he was the deputy of the Mogul Emperor to the Peshwa, and held the highest rank at the Peshwa's court. Out of jealousy, he was strongly disliked by Nana Farnavis. In 1792, the Rajputs paid tribute to him. He died suddenly. 1794.

Daulat Rao Scindia, the grand-nephew of 1794-
Mahadaji Scindia, quarrelled with Jaswant 1827.
Rao Holkar, who defeated him signally at 1801.
Poona. After his defeat in the 2nd Maratha
War, he signed the Treaty of Surji Anjun- 1803.
gaon. In the 3rd Maratha War he broke this
treaty by aiding Jaswant Rao Holkar. He,
however, re-confirmed the treaty with Sir 1805.
George Barlow, on receiving Gwalior in
return. The state since then has been under
British protection. In 1817, Daulat Scindia
was forced to help the British against the
Pindaris : he took no part in the 4th Maratha
War ; he died in 1827.

The capital of the State was Malwa and is now Gwalior.

THE
GAEKWAR.

D. THE GAEKWAR :—The founder was 1715.
Damaji, originally a cow-herd in the service
of Baji Rao I. On his death his nephew,
Pilaji, was made commander-in-chief of the 1720.
Maratha forces. His son Damaji won distinction in the Peshwa's service. Damaji's

son entered into a subsidiary treaty with the British. In 1857 Khanderao helped the latter during the Indian Mutiny. In 1875 1775. Mulhar Rao Gaekwar was dethroned by Lord Northbrook, the Viceroy, for misgovernment and for attempting to poison Colonel Phayre, the British Resident.

Sayajirao, a distant relative, succeeded him. 187 . Under him and his successors, the state has made great progress; it was the first Indian State to make primary education obligatory. It is one of the best administered at present. Its capital is Baroda.

THE BHONSLE
OF BERAR.

E. THE BHONSLE OF BERAR:—Parsoji 1720. Bhonsle, the founder, was allowed by Baji Rao I. to collect the revenue of Berar. His cousin Raghuji succeeded him and made Nagpur his capital. The latter was succeeded by Raghuji II., who reigned from 1772-1740. 1816. He opposed the Treaty of Bassein and 1802. was defeated in the 2nd Maratha War and signed the treaty of Deogaon, by which he placed himself and his state under British Protection.

Raghuji II. was succeeded by his son, Parsoji II., who was murdered by his cousin Appa Sahib. Appa Sahib attacked the British Residency at Nagpur, was defeated there and at Jubbulpore and fled to

Jodhpur. A grandson of Raghunji II. was made Raja of Berar by the Marquess of Hastings. He died without an heir in 1858. The Bonsle's dominions were annexed by 1858. Dalhousie. The capital was Nagpur.

KOLHAPUR. F. The Kolhapur State has preserved itself throughout. Its ruling family is descended from Sivaji. Its capital is Kolhapur.

NANA
FARNAVIS.

NOTE :—Brief mention must be made of Nana Farnavis, the Maratha statesman of the court of the 4th Peshwa, Madhavrao I. In 1774 he was head of the Council of Regency that opposed Raghuba, son of Baji Rao I, in support of Madhavrao II, the 6th Peshwa and son of Narayan Rao. He signed the 1776. Treaty of Purandhar with Warren Hastings. On his intriguing with the French, Warren Hastings declared war on him (1st Maratha War) which ended in the Treaty of Salbai. 1782. Nana Farnavis reached the zenith of his power after the Maratha victory over the Nizam at Khirda. He lost popularity 1795. through his bad treatment of Raghuba's sons, especially of Baji Rao, who became the last Peshwa. As head of the Peshwa's government, he aimed at uniting the Maratha chiefs more firmly into a confederacy. He disliked and feared Mahadaji Scindia, for

the latter aimed at an independent government of his own and was very powerful. He died in 1800. His death saw the end of solid and wise government in the Peshwa's territories.

THE RAJPUTS.

NOTE :—Mention must also be made of the Rajputs. Originally the Rajputs were not one race knit together by blood relationship. They were various clans belonging to different races. Some were descended from foreign races who invaded India during the fifth and sixth centuries ; others were purely Indian. All these tribes were warlike and as their chief members claimed aristocratic rank, the term of Raja-putra or Raj-put meaning 'the son of a King' was applied to them. They were classed as kshatriyas or warriors.

From the eighth to the twelfth century nearly every kingdom in the north and west of India was ruled by these clans.

NORTH.

The Gurjaras, with their kinsmen the Parihars and with allies like the Rathors, ruled over Rajputana and gradually became the dominant power in North-western India. Their capital city was Kanouj.

At Malwa, the Pawars founded their dynasty which produced the Raja Bhoja of Dhar, a well-known Sanskrit scholar of his day and an ideal prince of his people.

The Sisodias, considered as a royal race, established their renowned seat at Mewar.

Along the Sambar and at Ajmere the Chaulkans ruled. Prithiraj, their famous leader in 1182, is still the popular hero of northern India.

WEST.

The Chalukyas settled in Guzarat.

EAST.

When in 750 Bengal suffered from prolonged anarchy, its people chose as their king Gopala, one 'of the race of the sea,' to introduce settled government. He founded the Pala dynasty.

CENTRAL.

In Bundelkhand, the Chandels held sway for nearly three centuries. Their strong city was the famous fortress of Kalingar.

SOUTH.

Towards the middle of the sixth century the Chalukya kingdom was founded in the Bijapur district. It extended as far as the Narbada river and included the whole of what was known as the Maharashtra. At first its chief city was Nasik. Its most famous prince was Pulakesin II, who made Kalyan his capital. His dealings with Persia are commemorated among the frescoes of the Ajanta caves.

What are now the Nizam's dominions, once formed the kingdom of the Rashtrakutas. They were overcome by the Chalukyas. A relic of their rule is the Kaisala temple at Ellora, a most wonderful work of skilled labour.

MOHAMEDAN
INVASION

These were the leading Rajput clans in India when Mohamed Ghorî made his invasion. Under the leadership of Prithiraj of Ajmere, the Hindu forces of northern India met the invader but at the second battle of Tarain, a spot lying between Karnal and Thaneswar, they were overthrown. In the succeeding flood of Mohamedan invasion, almost all the realms existing in India were submerged. Many a Rajput clan, however, preserved itself in Rajputana.

THE MOGULS :

With the coming of the Mogul, their independence was threatened and lost. Once again the Hindu powers of the north ranged themselves under a Rajput leader to meet a Mohamedan invader. Their leader was Rana Sangram Singh, the chief of Mewar and 'the hero of a hundred fights, lacking an eye and an arm, crippled by a broken leg, and scarred by eighty wounds from lance or sword.' Opposed to him was Bahar called 'the lion-hearted. Yet that heart quailed before the unequal contest. Rana Sangram

had an army of 80,000 horse, 500 elephants, and infantry composed of the forces of 125 chiefs. Babar had less than 10,000 men but he had a large park of artillery. Dispirited at the prospect, for he knew his own life and that of every man of his depended solely on victory, he vowed to give up drink, broke his gold and silver goblets, poured out his supply of wine and, in an impassioned address, called on his men to view the battle as one fought for the God of Islam: "Who sits down to the feast of life must end by drinking the cup of death. Rather let us die with honour than live disgraced. If we die, we die martyrs; if we conquer, we triumph in the holy cause of God." He won and kept his pledge. This defeat seriously crippled Rajput power. Rana Sangram escaped but died two years after.

In his ambition, Akbar did not leave the Rajputs alone. He stormed Chitore the fortress of Mewar. When Ranthambor fell, Rajputana submitted but was never subdued. Through diplomacy and inter-marriage, he further weakened Rajput resistance. The whole of Rajputana practically became a province of his empire. Mewar, however, under its heroic chieftain the Rana Partap Singh held out and finally recovered almost

all its lost dominion. This state of affairs continued more or less till Aurangzeb, scandalised at the sight of Hindu idolatry, began his fanatical persecution. He destroyed temples both new and ancient. The Jats a minor Rajput tribe of Mathura, retaliated by plundering the sepulchre of Akbar at Agra and burning his bones. Aurangzeb re-imposed the hated jizya or poll-tax on all non-Mohamedans. War with Rajputana followed. Thousands of shrines and temples were destroyed and looted of treasure and the country fearfully devastated. Jodpur was annexed. For thirty years, desultory warfare ensued.

THE
MARATHAS.

When the Mogul empire was in ripe decay, the Marathas were swarming over northern India. Holkar of Indore and Mahadaji Scindia of Gwalior subdued the Rajputs and exacted chauth. But when the Rajputs found the Marathas were losing ground against the British, they sought protection through subsidiary alliance with the latter. Despite the agreement, Sir George Barlow failed to support them against the aggression of Jaswant Rao Holkar. This was remedied at the close of the British contest with the Marathas. Since then the Rajputs have remained staunch allies of the British.

The inhabitants of Rajputana, after the Mohamedan invasion may be considered to have welded themselves into a race of brave and chivalrous warriors who have earned a most honourable name in the annals of Indian History. Their women-folk have won renown. On the three occasions when Chitore was about to fall, all the women within the walls of the fortress burned themselves to death rather than have slur cast upon their fame.

To these spirited races, the name of Rajput came to be restricted. At present the following dynasties constitute Rajputana. Udaipur in the South; Bharatpur and Jaipur in the East; Bikanir in the north; Bhawalpur, Jaisalmer and Khairpur to the west; and Jodhpur in the centre.

THIRD SECTION.

SEA-POWER AND INDIA.

CHAPTER XII.

Sea-power and India.

Though possessed of a great coast-line and sufficient harbourage and though enriched with unlimited products of trade, India has never been a sea-power. This fact has played its part in her history. From very early times the wealth of India attracted sea-faring nations to her shores. The Phoenicians and the Arabs, the Persians and the Chinese traded peacefully with her, long before any European nation did. It was the Portuguese, **1498**, who were the first nation of Europe to begin and develop extensive trade with the East. But their growth of trade, helped as it was by their power at sea, fostered in them, as in other European nations who followed, the project of dominion over India. Throughout the sixteenth and in the beginning of the seventeenth centuries, Portuguese control over the Eastern seas was supreme.

After defeating a combined Turkish and Egyptian fleet off Goa, the western coast of India and parts of Ceylon were theirs ; and by holding Malacca, the chief town of the Spice Islands, and Ormuz, the trading centre of the Persian Gulf, they controlled the trade of India with China, Japan and Persia.

Rivals, however, of their supremacy in Eastern waters appeared at the commencement of the seventeenth century. These were the Dutch and the British. Of these, the Dutch were the stronger on sea. While dealing with India, they concentrated their trade on Java and the Malay Archipelago. On the other hand the British settled on India. Before long, the latter came into conflict with the Portuguese. Four ships fought a Portuguese squadron of twenty-five off Suvali, the port of Surat. By winning this engagement the British strengthened their footing on the western coast and dealt a severe blow to Portuguese prestige with Jahangir the Mogul Emperor. Ormuz was seized some time after. Yet it was the Dutch who finally broke the Portuguese power in the East. Their capture of Malacca took from the Portuguese the control of the sea-trade of India with China and Japan. Between 1638-1658, not only Ceylon but

most of the Portuguese settlements on the West coast came under their control. All hope of Portuguese dominion over India vanished with their loss of power at sea. In this contest with the Dutch, Portugal, it must be remembered, had been much weakened owing to her annexation by Spain in 1580. Spain, in turn, strove hard to prevent Dutch supremacy in Eastern waters. But the Dutch, almost to the close of the seventeenth century, continued their sway. Early in that century the British had combined with the Dutch against Spain and Portugal till the policy of the first two Stuarts towards Spain and France, and the growing jealousy of the two trading companies in the East, led to open hostility between them. During the three wars that followed, there was severe fighting at sea in the East and in the West.

THE FRENCH.

Varying success attended both rivals till the French became a redoubtable rival of the sea-borne trade of the East. This rivalry and the invasion of Holland by Louis XIV hastened on the Treaty of Breda between the British and the Dutch. 1672.

FRENCH AND DUTCH WARS.

Fortunately for the British, the Dutch and the French warred between themselves for the next 20 years. The Peace of Ryswick 1677-1697.

saw the Dutch emerge from the struggle too weak to maintain their former position at sea in the East and the French too poor then to develop their sea-power. During those twenty years, however, the British had prospered greatly. Cromwell had developed British sea-power. All rival British societies trading with the East had united into one Company. Their foot-hold on the mainland of India had become firmer than ever. Finally the war between the French and the Dutch gave them so great a lead that neither could overtake them again. Hence, on the death of Aurangzeb, when it 1707. was certain the Mogul Empire would sooner or later meet with ruin, the British purposed 'to establish a civil and military power of their own in India and to create such a large revenue as may be the foundation of a well-grounded sure English dominion in India for all time to come.'

This purpose was born of the power they felt they now had at sea.

At the opening of the 18th century, the Dutch still held Ceylon and a few stations 1713. in India but they steadily centred for trade on the Malay Archipelago.

After the Peace of Utrecht, the French began gradually to build up their sea-power

again. They took possession of Mauritius, which the Dutch had abandoned. Their factories on the Coromandel Coast increased. Before the middle of the 18th century, their colonial prospects both in America and in the East were flourishing. But political discord between the British and the French was now rife and was deepened by quarrels over trade and the colonies.

1715.

For half a century, both the British and the French had developed and were rivals in their commercial and colonial enterprise in India. Lasting success in such enterprise is based upon the strength of footing on the mainland; the sureness of this footing depends, in turn, upon power at sea. Growth in trade, success in commerce, colonial expansion rely upon while they foster naval strength.

With the growth of the French navy since 1713, there now began a struggle for supremacy on the sea. Many great results depended on the issue of that struggle. One of them was dominion over India.

In America and the West Indies the colonial possessions of France were more extensive than those of England. In India there was no great difference as to strength and settlement but the French were better off in

that they not only had a naval station at Madagascar but had most useful though distant naval bases at the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius.

WAR OF
AUSTRIAN
SUCCESSION.

As the political strain between France and 1740.
England tightened, Labourdonnais, the
Governor of Mauritius, got ready for an attack
upon the British in India. When war broke 1744
out, an indecisive naval action was fought off
the Coromandel Coast. The British ships
under Admiral Boscawen withdrew to har- 1746.
bour in Ceylon. Availing himself of this,
Labourdonnais landed at Madras and seized
Fort St. George. He agreed to its ransom
and sailed back to Mauritius. Dupleix, the
Governor of Pondicherry, now refused to
acknowledge the ransom and re-took the
Fort but was repulsed farther south in his
attack upon Fort St. David at Tegnapatam.
A fresh assault was planned but was thwarted
by the British squadron sailing up from
Ceylon. The squadron supplied the Fort
with men and stores. The French were
driven back on to Pondicherry which Admiral
Boscawen stormed. His assault failed.
Further fighting was stopped by the Peace of
Aix-la-chapelle. 1749.

Sea-power had saved the British from
defeat. Nevertheless the general result en-

couraged Dupleix in his ambition to found a French Empire in the East by driving the British out. He was right in thinking that the chaos produced by the decline of the Mogul Empire was the advantageous moment for a European power to aim at ascendancy in India. But he was handicapped by the fact that his position on land was not supported by undisputed sea-communication with France. Furthermore, Dupleix seems not to have realised all that the saving of Fort St. David by a British sea-force meant ; nor had he fully realised that the damage France had done to Holland, had been gain to England on the sea. He did not, in his ambition to conquer India, sufficiently weigh the breaking of British sea-power as a necessary preliminary.

Yet, to a European power, success on land would, in India, follow upon superiority at sea.

In the political tangle of the Carnatic, in which both the trading Companies were embroiled shortly after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, neither Government took official part. No naval engagement occurred. 1753.

SEVEN YEARS.
WAR.

Three years, later, however, the conflict was national. In India the mutual strife, it fanned, was officially supported. In this 1756.

momentous struggle, naval strength played a decisive part. Either the French or the British were to be masters of Eastern commerce and of a colonial empire there. In European waters, however, the French were hardly a match for the British. In 1755 they only had 67 ships of the line and 31 frigates against 131 British men-of-war and 81 frigates. Hence, throughout the Seven Years' War, the French could not make any vigorous attempt to challenge the British command of the sea in the West. But they made an effort to defeat the British in Eastern waters and thus to expel them from India.

The French Eastern expedition was entrusted to Count de Lally, the Governor of Mauritius, a man whose past experience and character, quite unfitted him for the task. In India, the British were aware of the coming of this expedition but were at the time in conflict with Siraj-ud-daulah in Bengal. Before de Lally could arrive, Clive overthrew Siraj-ud-daulah, secured the rich province of Bengal, of vital need to the British, and sent troops back to the south to face the French.

De Lally's orders were to defeat the British all along the Coromandel Coast. He landed at Tegenapatam and took Fort St. David.

At sea, he was supported by a squadron under Admiral D'Ache. Several sharp encounters took place between D'Ache and the British 1758. squadron under Admiral Watson. At length D'Ache, like Labourdonnais, grew discouraged and sailed back to Mauritius. During the rainy season, the British fleet sought harbourage in Ceylon. De Lally, who still meant to fight along the coast, called de Bussy to his aid from the Northern Circars and made a desperate effort to capture Madras before the British fleet could come up from Ceylon. Through lack of support on land and on sea, he failed to do so. On the appearance of the British fleet off Madras, 1759. he retired. The British fleet under Admiral Watson was now in fuller strength. Unhindered, fresh British troops came overseas to India.

Admiral D'Ache returned from Mauritius, landed insufficient supplies at Pondicherry and left for France. De Lally, thus deserted, was defeated by Sir Eyre Coote at Wandiwash. 1761. Pondicherry fell and with it the future of France in India. In 1763, the Seven Years' war ended. It had decided which of the two sea-faring powers would have dominion over India. That result was not brought about by the petty warfare between the two trading companies in the Carnatic and along

the Coromandel Coast but by the mastery
the British had of the sea. 1763.

WAR OF
AMERICAN
INDEPEND-
ENCE.

Nearly twenty years elapsed before the British faced one of the most critical phases in their history. In the far West, the War of American Independence had been waged for some time. The British would probably have won against the colonists of America, had their position at sea not been threatened by all the sea-faring nations of Europe. After the surrender of the British army at Saratoga, France, Holland and Spain, each with her own bitter grievance against the British, combined to sweep the British off the seas. In India, the British position be-
came one of great peril. With men and money failing him, Warren Hastings, the Governor-General, was carrying on war against Haidar Ali of Mysore and the Maratha Confederacy. Both these powers, especially that of Mysore, were in league with the French. In the West, therefore, and in the East, the British were fighting single-handed against great odds. In the East, as in the West, the British position was more threatened on sea than on land. The French squadron,
that came out to India, was under Admiral de Suffren, one of the most able naval commanders the French ever had. He was superior in numbers and in skill to Admiral 1778. 1782.

Sir Edward Hughes, the British commander who opposed him. When Admiral de Suffren reached India, he found Warren Hastings had already seized all the French settlements on the sea-board and having, as he said 'no friendly port nor roadstead, no base for supplies or repairs,' he sailed to Ceylon and seized Trincomali, which the British had taken from the Dutch the year before. From there, aid was sent by him to Haidar Ali. French troops, under the veteran de Bussy, were able to land and to take Cuddalore. But with Haidar, they were badly defeated at Arni. In the meanwhile five stubborn engagements were fought by the two fleets in the Bay of Bengal. Admiral Hughes was out-numbered and out-manœuvred but he still gave battle with the fierceness of his race when brought to bay.

In the West, critical engagements, however, had been won on sea. A Franco-Spanish fleet assaulted Gibraltar but was beaten off by Admiral Howe. There followed 1782. another defeat of the Spanish fleet off St. Vincent by Admiral Rodney. His crushing defeat of the French fleet off Sainte Lucie in the West Indies left the British unmolested at sea. These sea-battles won in the West left the British free to deal with the Colonists. But peace was preferred. The news of the

Peace of Versailles was brought to the Bay of Bengal when Admiral de Suffren and Admiral Hughes were at grips with each other. But the mastery in Eastern waters had been secured by the sea-battles of the West. Single-handed against its foes, British sea-power had held its own and triumphed. The help on sea these foes had given to America had, nevertheless, cost Great Britain her colonies in the West but their defeat at sea left her freer to secure her possession of Bengal and her settlements on the Coromandel Coast. Mainly to the political gain of the British, peace had been made with the Maratha Confederacy in 1782; but the War with Mysore dragged on till 1784. The year 1782 was one of the most critical in British history; at its close one result stood out: supremacy on the sea held India for the British.

WAR OF
REVOLUTION.

For the next ten years there was truce between the French and the British, to the advantage of the latter in India. But internal disorder in France led to the Revolution which again involved both nations in strife. 1793.

Owing to the growth in importance of the British stake in India, the latter was drawn into the European tussle. Before leaving

India, Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General in India, ordered the seizure of the French settlements again as Warren Hastings had done. On his departure Sir John Shore took 1796. over charge. As the Dutch were growing hostile, Ceylon was taken. But the policy of Sir John Shore, by provoking the hostility of the Nizam, imperilled the position of the British in India. The Marathas had attacked the Nizam who, as an ally, claimed British protection. Sir John Shore adhered to a policy of non-intervention as he feared that, by helping the Nizam, he would drive the Marathas into league with Tippu Sultan of Mysore and thus make matters worse. His policy of non-intervention only banded the Nizam, Tippu and the Marathas together. All these powers employed French officers who trained and led their armies. Naturally these officers fostered ill feeling against the British. When the Marquess of Wellesley 1798. succeeded Sir John Shore in office, he found all three powers intriguing with the French for the overthrow of British power in India. Tippu, the most active of the three, had despatched a mission to Mauritius proposing an offensive and defensive alliance against the British. He had also invited Zaman Shah, the Amir of Afghanistan, to invade India. The latter marched down upon

the Punjab and occupied Lahore. Napoleon, who was then in Egypt and fostered the ambition of driving the British out of India, readily communicated with Tippu, telling the latter of the keen desire he had of freeing him from their "iron yoke." The situation in India was, therefore, a critical one. It was also critical in Europe. Once again French, Spanish and Dutch sea-power combined against the British. 1799.

Much depended now upon what would happen to Napoleon. Were he to cross the Arabian Sea and land on the West coast of India, his aim of ousting the British out would probably meet with initial success.

Though Admiral Howe had defeated the French fleet off Brest, and Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson had beaten both the French and Spaniards off Cape St. Vincent, and Admiral Duncan had routed the Dutch navy off Camperdown in 1797, Napoleon, like Dupleix, seems not to have reckoned too much with British sea-power. To his chagrin, Commodore Nelson surprised and routed his fleet at the Battle of the Nile and left him to face not the problem of crossing the Arabian Sea but of getting home safely. His vision of a French Empire in the East was made all the more vain by the 1798.

warlike policy the Marquess of Wellesley assumed towards the Nizam, Tippu and the Marathas, leaving, as it did. British sway dominant in India.

British sea-power had once more thwarted French attempt at supremacy in India. It also gave Napoleon its first rude blow.

NAPOLEONIC
WARS.

The Peace of Amiens, in closing the War 1802. of Revolution, made Pondicherry over to the French. Within a year, however, Napoleon plunged Europe into the welter of terrible conflict. To India he sent a considerable military staff whose mission it was, 1803. through the influence of French officers in the service of Daulat Scindia of Gwalior, to get into touch with Shah Alum II, the aged and nominal Mogul Emperor then at Delhi. But the Marquess of Wellesley brought Shah Alum II under his control and made him a State prisoner. Napoleon's interference with India might have ended there, had Russian aggression not forced the Shah of Persia to 1804. appeal to him and to the Marquess of Wellesley for aid. The latter declared he was unable to help but Napoleon, still yearning after Asiatic conquest, saw in the appeal the opening out of a road to India. He hearkened to the Shah and formed a triple alliance between France, Turkey and

Persia against Russia and actually strove to find what co-operation he could expect from the Marathas on his arrival in India. Happily Lord Nelson met the combined Franco-Spanish fleet off Trafalgar and broke their power at sea, put England out of Napoleon's reach and left French over-sea possessions to conquest by the British fleet. It was the second rude blow Napoleon got from British sea-power. Had Admiral Villeneuve won at Trafalgar, Napoleon's triple alliance might have been effective. Yet he did not relinquish his vision of Asiatic conquest. After defeating the Russians at Friedland, he made of them an ally and transformed the league with Turkey and Persia into an offer of mediation, which Russia could hardly refuse. Then, through the Treaty of Tilsit, he pressed Russia to join him with Turkey and Persia, in a campaign against the British in India. This tremendous combination against India affords an apt illustration of sea-power. That Napoleon at the height of his success on the continent of Europe should have seriously thought of marching across Europe and half of Asia ; that he should have planned to tramp thousands of miles, from the Danube to Delhi, to inflict disaster upon the British in India, rather than to go from Calais to Dover,

1804.

1805.

1807

hardly 20 miles across water, and to strike at the heart of great Britain, clearly shows forth the strength of sea-power.

That power helped to break up this march of Frenchman and Turk, Persian and Russian upon India. Through British sea-power British troops under the doughty leadership of Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had fought Tippu of Mysore and the Marathas for the preservation of British power in India, were able to land in Portugal and in Spain and, by the victorious Peninsula War, greatly to help towards the downfall of Napoleon. 1809-1813. This was the third rude blow that British sea-power dealt the latter. The fourth was against his power abroad. In the East, Lord Minto who had succeeded the Marquess of Wellesley as Governor-General, had wasted no time in seizing French possessions in Eastern seas. Mauritius and the Isles of Bourbon and the Moluccas were taken. 1809-1810. Java was added, as it had come under French control. From there Lord Minto wrote to say that the British had neither an enemy nor a rival left from the Cape of Good Hope to Cape Horn.

With the close of the Napoleonic wars in 1815, with the capture of Napoleon by the "Bellerophon," a British warship, and his

imprisonment for life on St. Helena, a British possession in the Atlantic, French rivalry for the possession of India vanished.

Java was restored to the Dutch but, as no provision had been made to secure the interests of British commerce in the Malay Archipelago, a safeguard on the route of British trade with China and Japan was sought. The Marquess of Hastings, the Governor-General of India, wisely occupied Singapore, then a poor, half inhabited island at the extremity of the Malay Peninsula. Its occupation, in consequence of the modern development of Japanese and American sea-power, has proved to be of the utmost strategical and commercial importance. 1819.

In India, British dominion was completed under the Marquess of Hastings and Lord Dalhousie. They reaped the fruit that British sea-power had matured. Though there was no rival of British command of the sea during the remaining period of the nineteenth century, the protection of India was not neglected. Practically, the frontier of British dominion in India lies beyond the natural boundaries of the country. On land, through friendly agreements with neighbouring realms, British diplomacy threw up an out-lying barricade of British influence

against hostility of the part of any power beyond. Thus, beginning with Siam and going upwards through the neighbouring provinces of China and on towards Tibet, Nepal, Kashnir, Afghanistan and Persia, friendly agreements with these states have secured their probable resistance to an aggressive attempt through their territory upon India by an enemy of the British.

On sea, the natural frontiers of India are protected by the influence of sea-power, which starting in the West from Koweit and Busra in the Persian Gulf, goes down to Aden and the Suez Canal and from thence southwards to Zanzibar and along the Eastern littoral of Africa and, swinging round farther south to New Zealand and Australia, closes in the East at Singapore.

During the Great World War, India was safe from attack on her shores through the commanding power of the British navy. One light German cruiser, the "Emden," caused severe loss to trade in the Indian Ocean till it was destroyed off the Cocos 1915. Island by H. M. S. "Sydney" of the Australian navy. The case of the "Emden" serves to show what havoc to the trade and the seaboard of India, great German battleships would have wrought if they had not been pre-

vented by British sea-power; it also shows how India is protected at sea by the surrounding parts of the British Empire. Through British sea-power, India became a part of the Empire and, so long as India has no navy of her own, her safety depends upon British command of the sea.

CHAPTER XIII.

Sea-faring Nations in India.

THE PORTUGUESE.

The Arab conquest of Egypt and Persia in the 7th century had placed the direct route of trade between India and Europe under their control. All commerce passed through their hands and thence to Venice. This made the Portuguese jealous of Venice. Their sea-captains decided on finding a trade-route to India. In 1487 Bartholomeu Diaz de Novaes doubled the Cape of Good Hope and sailed a good way along the eastern coast of Africa.

VASCO DA GAMA.

Ten years later, Vasco da Gama followed, but went up the African coast as far as Melinda, 200 miles north of Zanzibar, and from there set sail for India and reached Calicut, 20th May, 1498. He was well received by its Zamorin or ruler but was

prevented by Arab merchants from doing much trade. After visiting Cannanore, he sailed for Lisbon but came back again in 1524 as Viceroy and died at Cochin in 1524 that year.

ALVARES CABRAL.

1504-
1509.

In the year 1500, the King of Portugal sent a large fleet under Pedro Alvares Cabral to India. Cabral founded an agency at Calicut and opened up trade with Cannanore and Cochin but was strongly opposed by Arab merchants. Returning home in 1501, he died in 1526.

FRANCISCO DE ALMEIDA.

The King of Portugal now claimed to be the lord of the conquest, navigation, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia and India and sent out Francisco de Almeida as the first Viceroy. Almeida did not intend to establish a Portuguese Empire in the East but aimed at founding such trade centres on land as could rely on Portuguese command at sea. He secured Cannanore as a port but was defeated at Chaul by an Egyptian fleet; he burnt Dabul in 1509 and defeated a Mohamedan fleet at Diu. On his way to Lisbon, he was killed in a skirmish with the Africans at the Cape of Good Hope.

AFFONSO DE ALBUQUERQUE.

1509-
1515.

Affonso de Albuquerque who succeeded de Almeida as Viceroy, was the real founder of Portuguese influence in the East. His aim was to establish a Portuguese Empire in the East, first by occupying a few important trading centres on the coast, then ruling over these places and finally colonising them by mixed marriages: where he could neither rule nor colonise, he would, after occupying such places, build fortresses; finally he would everywhere endeavour to persuade ruling chiefs to put themselves under the protection of the King of Portugal. Once strong on the coast, he hoped to extend his sway inland.

POLICY OF
CONQUEST.

He began by capturing Goa from the Raja of Bijapur and made it his political and commercial centre. Next he took Malacca, the chief town and trading centre of the Spice Islands. This gave him control of the Indian trade with China and Japan. While he met with this success, Goa was attacked on land by the Raja of Bijapur and on sea by a combined Turkish and Egyptian fleet. 1510.
1511. Albuquerque returned in time to save Goa. He then aimed at mastery over the Red Sea and attacked Aden but was repulsed. He was, however, successful in the Persian

Gulf where he seized Ormuz, then a very important centre of trade. 1515.

His policy of conquest left the Portuguese the masters of the Eastern seas.

POLICY OF
COLONISATION

By means of mixed marriages, he pursued his policy of colonisation and developed a population that, while remaining in India, proved loyal to Portugal. As an administrator, he deserves credit for having put down suttee, for having built schools for Hindus and for having enlisted them as Sepoys under Hindu officers. He disliked the Mohamedans and put many of them to death through misplaced religious zeal. He was deprived of office by John III and died in 1515.

ITS ZENITH.

For almost a century, the Portuguese control over the Eastern seas was supreme. Throughout the sixteenth and in the beginning of the seventeenth centuries, theirs was the first and the most powerful of European influences in Indian politics. Akbar sought their friendship and asked for their aid in the Deccan. So too, did Aurangzeb. Some say one of Akbar's wives was Maria Mascarenhas, of high birth but an orphan, who had been captured and sold as a slave on her way out to India; through her influence, a Jesuit 1612. 1515.

mission was invited to his court at Delhi and exercised no little influence over Akbar and Jahangir. But this is opposed by strong facts. The Portuguese power was at its zenith in India when Jahangir displeased the governor of Goa by infringing on the Portuguese monopoly of trade in granting Hawkins, an English sea-captain, some commercial privileges. Jahangir withdrew these privileges but was much impressed on learning, soon after, of the Portuguese defeat off Suvali the port of Surat, by four British ships. 1612.

When, in 1615, some of his ships were seized by the Portuguese, he attacked them at Damaun, forbade the Christian religion throughout his dominions, granted Sir Thomas Roe all the trading rights he requested and used the British as a counterpoise to the Portuguese. Thus began the loss of Portuguese prestige in the East, which was destroyed inland when Shah Jahan expelled them from Bengal. 1615. 1632.

ITS DECLINE.

The Portuguese were also to lose their influence on sea. Two rivals had appeared, the Dutch and the British. The former took Malacca in 1641 and between 1638-1658 held Ceylon. One Portuguese settlement after the other now passed into the hands of the Dutch and from them to the British. But 1641.

Bombay was secured by the British Crown through the marriage of Catherine of Braganza with Charles II of England. 1661.

The Maratha power inflicted further loss on the Portuguese by seizing Bassein and other places. It destroyed Portuguese political power on the West coast. 1739.

Since the 18th century, Portuguese India has played no part in Indian history. Its rise to power was rapid ; so also, was its decline. The causes of that decline were :
 A : the political union of Portugal with Spain in 1580. This drew Portugal into European quarrels and necessarily hindered its development of a colonial empire ;
 B : their imprudent attitude towards Jahan-gir which turned a powerful friend into a bitter foe ;
 C : the superior sea power of the Dutch and the British.
 D : the absence of expansion inland.
 E : the Maratha rise to power and the capture of Bassein.

At present, Portuguese India consists of Goa, Damaun and Diu. Of these, Goa is the largest and most important, with its capital at Panjim. The form of Government is Republican. Its old capital is in ruins but a place of interest and famous as the resting place of the undecomposed body of Francis Xavier, a Spanish Jesuit and

Catholic Saint, who laboured as a missionary on the Western and Southern coast of India.

THE DUTCH.

In 1602 the Dutch began to trade with the East. Their chief settlement was at Batavia in Java. The capture of Malacca ^{1619.} from the Portuguese gave them the control of sea trade between India and China. Between 1638-1658 Ceylon came to them. During the first half of the 17th century, they mastered the Eastern seas.

In India, their settlements were at Negapatam, Pulicat, Bimlipatam and Chinsurah : none of these was considerable, for the Dutch concentrated on Java and the Spice Islands. They never aimed at any conquest of India. Owing to war with Louis XIV of France, ¹⁶⁷⁷⁻ the Dutch power weakened. Hence, in ^{1697.} the 18th century and in the 19th, it was more easy for the British, during their wars with the Dutch in home-waters, to secure possession of the Dutch settlements in India. These settlements were formally ceded to the British in 1783 by the treaty of Versailles.

In Ceylon, as the Dutch sided with the French against England in 1796, they lost Trincomali and other stations,

The Dutch power, however, never centred on India but in the Malay Archipelago, where it still retains its early possessions and prospers.

THE FRENCH.

In 1604 the French began trading with India at Surat. But their attempt to vie with the Dutch and the British only started in 1664. Francis Martin opened an agency at Pondicherry in 1674 and, in 1683, the village was bought and became the capital of the French Company. Chandernagore was acquired in 1688 and other possessions were added gradually. During the next half century, the French Company prospered. Constitutionally, it was not independent of the Home Government.

Up to 1746, only rivalry in trade caused trouble in India between the British and the French. War in Europe brought armed strife between them. Before the close of the 18th century, French influence in India was broken. British sea-power greatly helped in that.

THE FIRST CARNATIC WAR.

CAUSES.

In 1746 the War of the Austrian Succession started the conflict in India. Labourdonnais, the Governor of Mauritius, sailed across and took Fort St. George but returned it for a ransom. Dupleix, the Governor of

1746-
1748.

Pondicherry, refused to acknowledge this agreement and re-took the Fort. The British, on receiving reinforcements over sea, attacked Pondicherry but were heavily repulsed.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle ended the conflict. Fort St. George was given back to the British in exchange for Cape Breton. French prestige in India mounted high. 1748.

During the next two years, there was outward quiet. French influence steadily grew and, with it, Dupleix's ambition to oust the British and make French power paramount in India. An opportunity of doing so arose over a twofold dispute as to succession. One was in Haidarabad and the other in the Carnatic. Dupleix supported both disputes. The British shared only in that of the Carnatic. Both went to war without any sanction from their respective governments.

CAUSES.

THE SECOND CARNATIC WAR.

1750-
1753.

A. Asaf Jah, the Nizam of the Deccan, died in 1748. The succession was disputed for by his son Nasir Jang and Muzaffar Jang, his grandson. B. This strife was complicated by another quarrel. In 1744 Asaf Jah had deposed the ruling Nawab of the Carnatic and, in his stead, had placed one Anwar

ud-din. He was killed at Ambur in 1749 by Chanda Sahib the son-in-law of the deposed Nawab. Chanda Sahib now declared himself Nawab of the Carnatic but was opposed by Mohamed Ali, son of the murdered Anwar-uddin. c. Dupleix supported Muzaffar Jang and Chanda Sahib in their respective claims. d. The British were asked for support by Mohamed Ali and had, in self-defence, to throw in their lot against the French. The British thus had nothing to do with the Haidarabad quarrel. They took sides only in the Carnatic dispute.

CONTEST.

Dupleix overthrew Nasir Jang at Haidarabad and proclaimed Muzaffar Jang, Nizam, who, in return, gave the French the Northern Circars and extensive territory along the Coromandel Coast. But Muzaffar Jung was soon after killed by his own soldiers, and, under the guidance of the French General de Bussy, Salabat Jang was appointed Nizam.

From the river Krishna to Cape Comorin French sway was supreme.

With the exception of Trichinopoly, the French and Chanda Sahib possessed the Carnatic. Trichinopoly was still held by the British and Mohamed Ali. It seemed as though Dupleix's ambition would be realised,

At this crisis, Robert Clive, a young clerk in the E. I. C., proposed to attack Arcot, Chanda Sahib's capital, and thus relieve Trichinopoly a little. With 500 men Captain Clive marched on the unguarded capital, fortified it and held out for 54 days against Raja Sahib, the son of Chanda Sahib, who with a large force had left Trichinopoly to retake Arcot. Murari Rao, a Maratha chief, admiring Clive's tenacity, attacked Raja Sahib, who was forced to retire and, being pursued by Clive, was badly defeated at Arni. Clive kept to open warfare, seized 1752. Conjeeveram and next defeated the French at Kaveripak. Major Lawrence and Clive then forced Chanda Sahib away from Trichinopoly. The latter fled to Tanjore, surrendered to its Raja and was basely executed.

The French and British governments now interfered and closed the conflict.

RESULT,

Mohamed Ali was appointed Nawab of 1753. the Carnatic. The Treaty of Pondicherry was drawn up binding the British and French Companies to avoid meddling with the affairs of neighbouring Indian States. Dupleix was recalled to France.

The conflict as much weakened the French position and influence as it strengthened the British.

For three years there was peace. But the outbreak of the Seven Years' war in Europe set the British and French in India at each other again.

THE THIRD CARNATIC WAR.

1756-
1763.

CONTEST.

Colonel Clive and Watson captured Chandernagore in Bengal. On the other hand, Count de Lally took Fort St. David. But he made the mistake of calling de Bussy from the Northern Circars to his aid. Salabat Jang was glad to get rid of de Bussy's control and sided with the British. Colonel Forde came down from Bengal and drove what was left of the French forces out of the Northern Circars. De Lally attacked Madras in vain and was forced to give battle at Wandiwash 1760. against Sir Eyre Coote and was badly defeated. This led to the fall of Pondicherry. 1761.

RESULT.

By the Treaty of Paris, no regular 1763. military force was left to the French nor any of their possessions, except small factories at Calicut and Surat. De Lally was recalled, tried, and unjustly executed. The British were now masters of the Carnatic and of the Northern Circars.

In subsequent Indian History, little, beyond intrigue against the British, is heard of the French. During the American War of 1783. Independence, they retook Pondicherry and

kept it by the Treaty of Versailles. But, at the outset of the War of Revolution, the British re-captured it. It was restored by the Peace of Amiens. 1793.
1802.

The Marquess of Wellesley was seriously alarmed by French intrigue with the Nizam, Tippu of Mysore and the Marathas. Napoleon was foiled in his design of conquering the British in India and founding a French Empire in the East by his defeat at the Battle of the Nile. 1798.

At present the French possessions in India are Pondicherry, Chandernagore and Mahe.

CAUSES OF
FRENCH
FAILURE.

The failure of the French in India was due to : A. The Company had no Constitution of its own but was a departmental concern of the French Government. B. Having so much to do with European War, the French Government could not adequately support the Company. c. Excepting Dupleix and de Bussy, the Company's officials did not wish to meddle with the politics of Indian rulers but sought only such territorial standing as would suffice for successful trading. d. Dupleix's ambition to oust the British and to make France paramount in India was a dream. The British held the sea and were possessors of the rich resources of Bengal and were better organised as a trad-

ing company. Moreover, no conquest of India could ever have won its way from South to North. E. The naval strength of France was unequal to the task of defending a colonial Empire.

THE BRITISH.

The history of the British in India may be divided into their acquisition and their administration of India.

The acquisition of India by a British trading company began in 1757 and ended in 1857; the British Parliament then assumed full control. It is an acquisition that has no parallel in History. Here we shall deal with the acquisition first and then with the policy of the Company.

THE ACQUISITION SURVEYED.

The trading of the Portuguese and the Dutch with the East was early known to the British but it was only in 1600 that they made a serious effort to share in that trading. Queen Elizabeth gave "the Governor and Company of London merchants trading with the East Indies" a charter, granting them British rights of monopoly. Even then the early efforts of the Company centred rather on the Spice Islands than on India. It was on the Company's third outward voyage that one of its ships reached Surat.

1608.

Portuguese opposition was strong but, after winning the fight off Suvali the port of Surat, **1612.** the British built a factory at Surat under Jahangir's protection. Ten years after, they again defeated the Portuguese at sea and captured Ormuz. Sir Thomas Roe, the ambassador of James I to Jahangir secured important trading privileges from him in favour of the Company. **1615.**

In **1623** the Dutch massacred a number of British at Amboyna in Java and drove the rest to seek factories in India. They went up the Bay of Bengal and settled above Masulipatam and erected a factory at Armagaon **1625.** south of Nellore. Their first territorial position, a mile long and six miles broad, was at Madras. They bought this strip **1639.** from the Raja of Chandragiri and built Fort St. George. Later on Fort St. David was built at Tegnapatam. On the western **1690.** coast, Bombay was bought from the Crown. In Bengal, Job Charnock founded a settle- **1698.** ment at Calcutta and built Fort William.

Meanwhile rival British companies sprang up but they happily resolved to unite and thus the United East India Company was **1707.** formed.

In 1746 trouble arose between the British and the French and led to the Carnatic War,

which closed leaving the French defeated and the Company masters of the Carnatic 1763. and the Northern Circars.

When in the South the last Carnatic War began, Siraj-ud-daulah in the north-east drove the British out of Bengal but he was 1757. defeated at Plassey and had to allow the British re-settlement at Calcutta. Later on Mir Kassim and Shuja-ud-daulah of Oudh opened hostilities again in the north-east but were defeated at Buxar, and, by the 1764. Treaty of Allahabad, the Company secured Bengal, Bihar and the northern part of Orissa.

SECOND
PERIOD.

The struggle for political ascendancy between European rivals was over; the British shifted the seat of Government from Madras to Bengal; against them the Indian powers would contend for supremacy; within a hundred years the British would hold the country.

Not only her internal disunion but her defenceless sea-board made India weak. Conquerors from Central Asia had found that political discord readily drew petty realms in India away from one another and made them gravitate towards a foreign power that was self-contained. These conquerors had also found that the Indian caste system

had whittled down the fighting resources of Indian manhood by restricting the bearing of arms to races both scattered and few ; Indian armies, if large, were thus necessarily comprised of too many a mere mercenary or free-lance or adventurer, all with little stomach for dire battle and no patriotism ; hence it was that invaders, fewer in numbers but superior in union, had, time and again, carved out for themselves extensive dominion. Like the Asiatic invaders, so, too, had both the French and the British realised that small Indian forces, leavened by a warlike foreign element, could withstand and overcome a larger army of their own countrymen.

In their warfare on land, therefore, the British did nothing quite unheard of in Indian History. But their acquisition of India is unique in History because done by a trading company that grew into a ruling body though separated from the base of its power by the vast waters of the Atlantic and of the Indian Ocean. Just as other conquerors in their day had done, the British, in their turn, made use of the political discord then rife in India owing to the Mogul decay but, unlike other conquerors, they were aided by the undefended sea-board. They alone of all invaders won their way not inland from the north but sea-wards from the east,

Their victory at Plassey, it is said, sealed the destiny of India. It led to Bengal falling to the British. Bengal is not only the richest part of India ; it is also linked to the most important. Behind it, lies the wide open fertile plain that stretches along the Himalayan wall to the north and away to the Sulaiman Hills in the west. It broadens out southwards on to the Vindhya Range. From a strategic point of view, this central plain dominates the rest of India. It was ever the goal of invasion. Within its frontiers one conquering dynasty after the other penetrated, held sway, built its cities and died out. Nature has fenced in those frontiers and fortified them on the north by the highest mountain wall in the world and on the north-west by another bleak wall of mountain impassable but for rugged passes here and there ; to the south-west, Nature has spread the burning sands of the Gobi desert to shut out an invader from the mid-land area. But though protected so well on the north and in the west, it has a weak spot in Bengal in the east. This province lies open to the sea and, on all the eastern board, it alone has such rivers as make water-ways, which, to an invader, are like arteries running inwards to the heart of India. Through them, an invader, sailing over sea to the Bay,

can penetrate up to the centre of the plain behind and can march as far as the Himalayan and the Sulaiman wall and to the fringe of the Gobi Desert and from within the fortress, Nature has built, face a foe hailing from the north or the west.

Through Bengal the British came and won India. Once masters of Bengal, they strengthened their position there and did not advance it for the next forty years. No French invasion from the south threatened them. They held the sea. Nor were they troubled from the North or West. Ahmad Shah after invading the Punjab returned no more nor did any of the Amirs whose dynasty he founded. Afghanistan became a barrier against intrusion from Central Asia. In the Punjab, the Sikhs, in their strength, barred the way either of the Afghan or Central Asiatic into India. Moreover, between Bengal and the Sikhs and below the Sutlej, lay a belt of Mohamedan realms from Delhi to Lucknow. Of these realms, the most powerful was that of Oudh. By the Treaty of 1765. Allahabad, it was an ally of the British. This alliance was the corner stone of the system in defence of Bengal.

With the loss of central control through the decay of Mogul power, differences national, political, and religious between Maratha,

Sikh and Mohamedan bred strife, which did not touch Bengal but enabled it to support the British in meeting their share in that strife, bound up, as it was, with the bid for supremacy.

THIRD PERIOD. Almost simultaneous with the possession of Bengal, British control over the Northern Circars and the Carnatic was secured in the south where, not long after, the conflict with Tipu of Mysore led to the formation of the Madras Presidency. By obtaining Cuttack and Ballasore, the Marquess of Wellesley linked up this Presidency with Bengal, extended the latter to the Jumna and, with the territory received from the Marathas, nearly completed the command of the whole Western littoral. After the Nepalese war, almost the whole northern belt of land from Bengal to the desert border in the west and up to the Himalayan wall as a barrier on the northern flank, was added by the Marquess of Hastings. There followed the suppression of the Pindaris which brought Central India under British political control. Southwards, the close of the Maratha wars completed what the Marquess of Wellesley had left undone in the western acquisition and resulted in the formation of the Bombay Presidency. Only in the north-east, where the Burmese were threatening

1790.

1799.

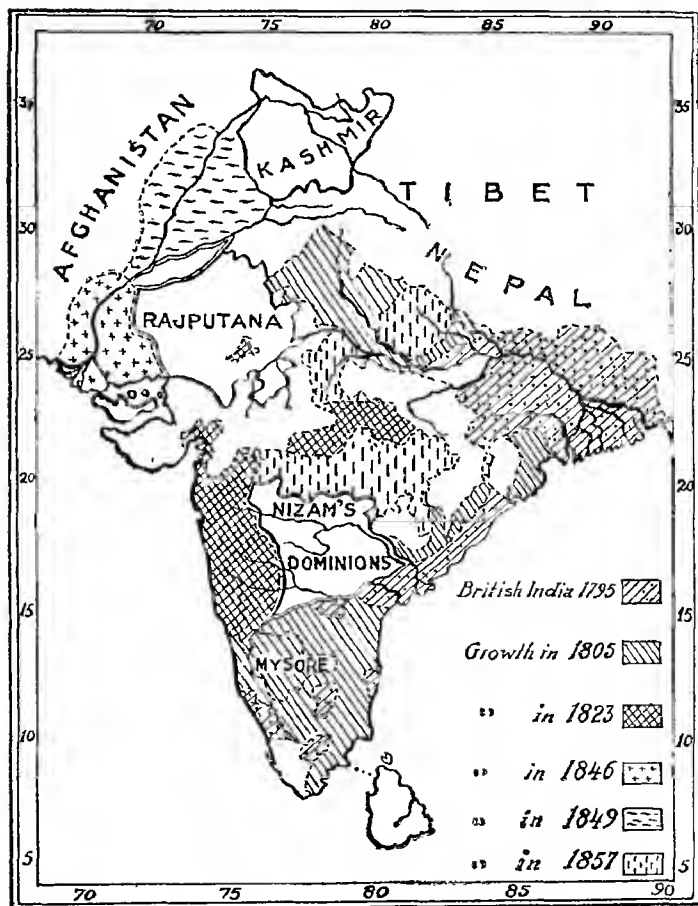
1803.

1816.

1817.

1818.

1826.



Assam, and, in the north-west, where the Sikhs in the Punjab were formidable, lay any likelihood of disturbance such as would lead to territorial acquisition. This likelihood became fact when war with Sikh and 1849. Burman came about and the Punjab first and Burma later on were both annexed.

Not through warfare but by a policy of annexation for misrule and by the Law of Lapse, Lord Dalhousie brought the acquisition of British India to a close. 1856.

Having extended and consolidated its acquisition within the limits of a century, events made the Company yield its vast possession to the Crown as a part of the 1857. Empire.

THE COMPANY'S POLICY.

No sooner the control exercised by Mogul rule over India began to slacken, warring disruption set in. Gradually out of the welter of warfare, there emerged those powers whose strength would enable them to bid for political ascendancy. One was the Sultanate founded by Haidar Ali, with its capital at Mysore; another was the Mara- 1757. tha Confederacy in the west with its political centre at Poona; the third was the British with the seat of government at Calcutta in the north-east.

Of these powers, the Maratha Confederacy and the Sultanate of Mysore had no settled policy. Both were restless and war-loving, willing to expand their political influence wherever and whenever they could. Both distrusted each other ; both sought French help against the British whom they feared.

The British, after more than a century spent in occupation as traders, were drawn into serious conflict with Indian states through the rivalry of the French and the ambition of Dupleix. The conflict in the Carnatic was forced on the Company. To have refused Mohamed Ali the aid he wanted would have led to his defeat. This would have so surrounded the Company with enemies, that its casting out of India could have been assured. Fight the British had to, but it was a very narrow escape from defeat that left them their existence in the Carnatic. War in Europe, it was, and their sea-power that gave them final political mastery over the Carnatic and the Northern Circars.

As in the south, so too in the north-east the British had to war. Siraj-ud-daulah falsely informed as to the wealth of the Company's settlement on the Hoogli, opened a conflict which left to the British the mastery over Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and, politically,

CLIVE

bound them up with the affairs of India. From a dependent trading body, they had suddenly grown into one of the ruling powers in India. Owning vast territory in the south and in the north, they had either to maintain that position of power or retire altogether. To keep what they had, was Clive's view after the battle of Buxar. When it was mooted whether to take the rest of the Mogul empire in the north or no, he stood for holding firm to what the British had and not for making fresh conquest. "We have at last arrived" he wrote "at that critical period which I have long foreseen, that period which renders it necessary to determine whether we can or shall take the whole to ourselves..... It is scarcely hyperbole to say that to-morrow the whole Mogul Empire is in our power.' Yet rather than act up to this conviction, he preferred to hold to what the Company had. He gave back to Shuja-ud-daulah, Vizier of Oudh, districts he had won and formed with him the barrier-treaty of Allahabad in defence of Bengal.

1765.

At this time, those who directed the affairs of the Company were keen on limiting territorial expansion of the Company, on curbing schemes of conquest and on avoiding such

treaties with Indian states as would involve the Company in war. Moreover, it was firmly believed that the British would in the end acquire complete political ascendancy over Indian powers, provided no foreign rival interfered. In this belief, they were supported by the withdrawal of the French as formidable rivals and by the interposition of both the growing Sikh power and the Afghan dynasty against an invasion from Central Asia. There was also the lesson taught by Indian History of the gradual gravitation of minor and scattered realms towards any strong coherent power. It followed that, at this time, the best interest of the Company would be served by developing what it had. This was actually carried out in the north. For the next forty years its territorial limits remained almost stationary there.

WARREN
HASTINGS.

The Governor chosen after Clive's departure was not a warrior but an administrator. The task allotted him was the organisation of the Bengal Province. But events happened that thwarted this a deal. The Nawab of Oudh, an ally of the Company, fell out with the Rohillas and asked Warren Hastings, the Governor, for help. This was given to secure further protection for Bengal. As the Rohillas were on friendly

terms and sought no quarrel with the British, the action of Warren Hastings was aggressive. In the west, the Bombay Council, eager to obtain Salsette and Bassein, supported Raguba in his claim to the Peshwaship and involved itself in war with the Maratha chiefs who upheld the claims of the infant son of Narayan Rao, the late Peshwa. A long, costly and unprofitable war followed. The Marathas were, at the time, quite a match for the British. During the American War, France was led to intrigue with the Marathas and Haidar. Warren Hastings decided on seizing French settlements in India. When Mahe was taken, the line of communication between the French and Haidar Ali of Mysore was broken. Haidar Ali, who never forgot that the British had not aided him against the Marathas in 1771, now opened his attack. Warren Hastings was in a position of great peril. During this period and for the rest of the 18th century, the balance of power rested on a triangular equipoise between the British, the Marathas and the Sultanate of Mysore. If two of these fell out with each other, the third grew dominant for the while ; if two combined, the third was imperilled.

From 1778 to 1783 British prospects sank to the lowest water-mark. The Marathas

and Haidar of Mysore, both aided by the French, had set upon the British. With rare sagacity Warren Hastings pulled the British through. When the crisis was over, Parliament sanctioned Pitt's India Bill 1784. which definitely laid down what is known as a policy of non-intervention. The Bill declared that to pursue schemes of conquest and dominion was repugnant to the wish, honour and the policy of the British nation. It, therefore, forbade warfare against Indian states or treaties likely to entangle the British in warfare. A neutral attitude was to be observed. But this attitude should depend on whether other Indian Powers would be neutral and not attack the British or those states who were British allies. So the policy all turned on whether the Marathas or the Sultan of Mysore or any other Indian state would maintain the equipoise of power. At the very outset, Tippu Sultan of Mysore chose to be a storm centre and brought the Maratha, the Nizam, and the British down upon himself; but, during the next six years, 1793. Sir John Shore kept close to the non-intervention policy. It was a period of peace for the British but instead of strengthening or even securing their position, their neutral policy placed them in danger. Friendly states felt their confidence in the British

PITT'S BILL.

SIR JOHN
SHORE.

quite shaken. Hostile states mistook British moderation either for weakness or selfishness. No political advantage to the British was given up without a hostile power seizing it. The British found that to resign influence was not only to resign power but to discover that power had passed to their foes. Hence it is admitted, on all hands, that Sir John Shore's fidelity to political neutrality or non-intervention sowed the seed of warfare rather than of peace.

THE
MARQUESS OF
WELLESLEY.

What was the situation when the Marquess of Wellesley assumed office?

The Nizam of Haidarabad, Tippu of Mysore and the Marathas eager to drive the British out and to keep India for themselves, sought help from the French but did not combine. France and England were in the throes of 1799. the French Revolution and, as the destiny of India lay ultimately either with the British or the French, the latter eagerly fostered the attitude of the Indian powers against the British.

To Wellesley, it seemed the British were set against the wall. In this crisis, they had not disturbed the balance of power nor had their neutral policy failed for want of trial on their part. Hostility stared them in the face and threatened ruin. Either they

struck out or they were lost. Wellesley, led by the political situation in Europe rather than in India, decided on his policy. He would strive against France for the mastery of India. Through subsidiary alliances British power in India would be made supreme; annexation he would make where possible. It was a warlike aggressive policy. A subsidiary alliance meant that the British undertook the military defence of a state; its ruler defrayed the expense of the army he did not command; excluded from his realm all foreigners of a nation hostile to the British; and agreed to have all his external policy guided by a British Resident stationed at his capital.

Wellesley went forward with this policy and, in the case of the Nizam and of Tippu Sultan of Mysore, offered it as an alternative to war. In the case of the Marathas, as they were too formidable easily to tackle, the Marquess waited for his opportunity which, owing to their rivalry, came more ripe than he had hoped for when the Peshwa appealed to him for help. By the treaty of Bassein, the centre of Maratha Government was brought under British protection.

His forward policy had now reached its

height. At Mysore, Haidarabad, Lucknow, and Poona, the capitals of four Indian powers, British forces were encamped.

But three Maratha chiefs realising that the Peshwa, by placing the centre of Maratha government under British control, had endangered their own independence, refused to acknowledge the subsidiary alliance of Bassein. Having gone so far, Jaswant Rao Holkar, now kept aloof. But the Raja of Berar and Daulat Rao Scindia of Gwalior waged war and lost heavily. By this victory politically the British were now paramount. The only rulerships quite outside their dominant influence in India were the Sikhs in the Punjab and the tribes of Nepal. During the seven years which the Marquess of Wellesley ruled, the foundations of dominion laid down by Clive and Warren Hastings had been built upon. When he came to India, the British were halting before two political paths; the one was the neutral policy of holding aloof from the quarrels of Indian powers and defending themselves within their own administrative borders; the other was the aggressive policy of striking boldly into the medley of warring states and of disarming and subjecting them to British control. Wellesley found reasons for adopting this course which satisfied the Court of Directors.

SIR GEORGE
BARLOW.

His hobby of French menace was ridden hard. It won for him Parliamentary support. If before his day, the British had dealt with the Indian states upon a footing of political equality, they found before he left, that he had planted the imperial principle of political supremacy. But various causes made re-action set in against that principle. Wellesley was recalled. Lord Cornwallis and his successor, Sir George 1805.
Barlow, set about to work the non-intervention policy once more. Lord Minto strenuously followed them at first but gradually steered a middle course between intervention and non-intervention and ended by convincing the Directors that, in the long run, it was impossible to keep rigidly to a neutral policy in India and yet preserve the balance of power.

THE
MARQUESS OF
HASTINGS.

The Marquess of Hastings who succeeded Lord Minto, found there were thrust upon him seven different quarrels likely to demand "the decision of arms." He spent six years in warfare. At first the Nepalese courted his attack. His early failure against them made every political power in India throb with the hope of overthrowing the British. When the Nepalese War closed leaving the British dominion extending from Bengal to the Sikh frontier, the Marquess settled down 1816.

to a warlike policy that completed whatever Wellesley had left undone in the political structure of British Dominion in India.

The neutral policy of the British had been followed for the past eight years. In consequence, almost the whole of Central India and Rajputana had been left to themselves. Within the ring-fence of British territory, rigid order had developed; outside the fence, tumultuous disorder prevailed. Armies of lawless banditti, known as the Pindaris, roved over the country; the Maratha chiefs of Indore and of Gwalior and other petty feudatory leaders were in constant turmoil; the Rajput chiefs were pestered by Afghan rovers under Amir Khan and by predatory bands of Marathas. A neutral policy towards this disorder relied on the hope that, after its ferment, it would fuse and settle into solid well-framed rule. But disorder only seemed to wax more rife. The condition of Central India sank steadily from bad to worse. Reasons for this could be found in the fact that large bodies of troops, who lived on warfare, had found their occupation gone when British government spread over the greater part of India; moreover, fixed boundaries and regular regime were unsuited to Maratha chiefs, who could only maintain their armies by levying chauth on their

neighbours or by constantly marauding ; besides this, systematic rule in British territory only aggravated the confusion in those parts where misrule thrived ; for, in India neither the country nor its people were suited to two irreconcilable systems of government ; and as British ascendancy now overshadowed India, it was too late to stand abruptly on the road towards supremacy and to disclaim the exercise of control over India ; no one else could assume the sovereignty. Elsewhere in India, minor chieftaincies, who found themselves spoiled and plundered by free-booters and who could only exist protected by a strong central power, protested against the British holding an imperial position but refusing help to the weaker. Those states, too, who had accepted the subsidiary alliance of Wellesley, found their responsibility for governing well, had lessened : their dependence on a stronger power had weakened their internal authority ; for, they trusted that an appeal to British power would always stave off their ruin. Hence, after the British had assumed responsibility for the external defence of these states, the British realised they had also to shoulder the burden of internal order. So even when the policy was neutral, the British were impelled, step by step, towards

the office of supreme arbiter in India. The trend of events proved, therefore, that non-intervention, as a policy, had grown out of date. Faced by this condition of affairs, the Marquess of Hastings decided on following the policy of the Marquess of Wellesley and on completing what he had left unfinished. He decided on crushing the Pindaris for the good of Central India and, if this should lead, as it inevitably did, to war with the Marathas who were in league with the Pindaris, the severe fighting had to be got through and got over, once and for all. Hastings achieved his purpose and pacified **1818.** Central India. With the ascendancy of the British thus finally established, an era of peace set in for over twenty years. Unfortunately, this was broken by the aggressive policy of Lord Ellenborough who, fearing the aims of Afghanistan, waged war upon and annexed Sindh. His successor, Lord Hardinge, though following a policy of peace, was forced into conflict with the Sikhs. The Punjab fell into his hands but was not annexed. After this, so sure was he that peace would prevail that he greatly reduced the army and even told his successor that it would not be necessary to fire a gun for seven years to come. His forecast proved entirely false. During the next four years, Dalhousie

LORD
DALHOUSIE

had to fight bitterly before he overthrew the Sikhs. The fault lay with Mulraj, the Governor of Multan and with the unstable state of the Sikh Government. Twice already had the Punjab fallen to the British and twice had it been restored to Sikh mis- 1849. rule. Placing it under British control was now decided on. Under Dalhousie, the British as a ruling power quite held India. This fact deepened the view he had that India would prosper most if it were, as far as possible, under British control. Through a policy of annexation and by applying the Law of Lapse, more of India could still come under that rule. He adopted this two-fold policy. Through that he sought the common weal by striving to end the prolongation anywhere in India, of an era of disorder and dynastic strife. As both the principle of annexation and the Law of Lapse were principles admitted and applied in India before the coming of the British, the Directors were not against his policy, especially as non-intervention had long since been discarded. Though to make general peace an abiding result of complete control was Dalhousie's object, yet, in working for that aim, he applied the principle of annexation and the Law of Lapse too often and too rapidly. This mistake, arising

as it did from the feverish energy he displayed in carrying out any enterprise, caused wide unrest and deep resentment. If the Mutiny in the north followed, it was not because British control was completed but ^{1857.} because it had made itself felt in such bewildering haste. Had more leisure been spent in bringing more of India under that control for the common welfare, it would have been accepted without upheaval.

In looking back upon the growth of British power in India, it is noticeable how definitely a neutral policy towards the ruling Indian states was insisted on by the Company; it is equally noticeable, too, that when that neutral policy was strictly adhered to, it did not mend matters; it, in fact, made matters worse. A neutral policy could have had more success if all the ruling powers had striven to maintain an equipoise of power. So far as the Company was concerned, it would have preferred more of peace than of war, more of the maintenance of the balance of power than of political ascendancy, more of neutral than of an aggressive policy. But more often than not, the force of actual circumstances drove it either to preserve itself or to support an ally or to suppress disorder that endangered the common good. To do so, it had to lay aside its neutral policy and

to adopt an aggressive. This, in turn, was condemned and checked if pursued beyond need. While the policy of the Company influenced by the ebb and the flow of Indian affairs, shifted itself thus backward and forward, British expansion steadily grew. This expansion was due to political stress rather than to love of conquest. Conquest, for the sake of conquest could never have created British India.

FOURTH SECTION,

THE BRITISH ACQUIRE INDIA

1757-1858.

CHAPTER XIV.

The Acquisition begun.

1757-
1763.

ROBERT CLIVE.

1765-
1767.

The founder of the British power in India was Robert Clive. After a stormy school career, he landed in India when 18 years old, as a clerk in the Company's service. He disliked his work and in his despondency strove to take his life. Twice the pistol he held in his hand missed fire. He yearned for a life of action. This he got when the struggle against the French in the Carnatic began. By attacking Arcot and relieving the strain on the besieged in Trichinopoly, and by beating the French at Arni and Kaveripak, he saved the British situation in the South and practically laid the foundation of British rule in the Madras Presidency.

AS CAPTAIN.

1761.

1752.

AS COLONEL.

Having left for England in 1753, he returned after two years, landed at Bombay and together with Admiral Watson destroyed

1755.

Gheria, a nest of pirates. Sailing on to Madras, Watson and he learnt there of the driving out of the British settlement on the Hoogly by Siraj-ud-daulah. Both left Madras for Calcutta, retook Fort St. William, 1756. and, as the Seven Years' War had begun, took Chandernagore and later on sent Colonel Forde south to expel the French from the Northern Circars. A French attack under de Lally was expected shortly. Madras clamoured for troops. Aid could not be rendered so long as it was certain Siraj-ud-daulah would renew hostilities no sooner the British forces left Bengal.

AMINCHUND

So Clive now resolved to overthrow Siraj-ud-daulah and to replace him by Mir Jafar, the brother-in-law of Alivardi Khan the previous Nawab. But Aminchund, a rich Sikh banker, knew of the plan and threatened to reveal it to Siraj-ud-daulah unless he were paid 30 lakhs (i.e. 3 millions of rupees at present). This was blackmail. Clive deceived the banker through forgery. He drew up two documents, one genuine, containing the real signature of Watson but with no promise of payment for silence; the other false, containing the promise but with the forged signature of Watson; Clive showed the latter to Aminchund at first, but, when his plan against Siraj-ud-daulah had succeeded,

Aminchund was shown the document with Watson's real signature and no promise of payment. In due time Aminchund got over his disappointment and resumed business with the Company.

The overthrow of Siraj-ud-daulah at Plassey was a victory that decided the fate of Bengal and was the beginning of British power in the North. It was the starting point of dominion going east to west. 1757.

MIR JAFAR. Mir Jafar was made Nawab but Clive ruled in reality. He received a jagir from Mir Jafar and the Company was given the rights of a Zemindar over the 24 Parganas, a tract of country south of Calcutta.

Under the rule of Clive, Mir Jafar was far from comfortable. He secretly intrigued with the Dutch. Clive attacked and defeated the latter at Biderra near Chinsurah. This led to the final withdrawal of the Dutch from Indian politics. Clive now left for England. He had laid the foundation of British power in Bengal. This closes his first period of administration. 1759. 1760.

MIR KASSIM. During his absence, affairs in Bengal fell into great disorder. Mir Jafar was no ruler. In 1761 he was deposed by the Company and his son-in-law Mir Kassim was made Nawab. In return he gave the Company the districts

of Burdwan, Chittagong, and Midnapur. This was the second stage in the formation of the Bengal Presidency.

But Mir Kassim meant to rule. Trouble soon arose between him and the Company. It was over his loss of revenue due to the abuse of the privilege, the Company had, of freedom from inland duties on customs.

AS LORD
CLIVE.

When the conflict heightened, Clive was again sent out by the Board of Directors and landed at Calcutta on the day when Major Munro won the decisive battle of Buxar. 1764. This battle completed the British military conquest of Bengal. Clive set out for Allahabad and signed the treaty of Allahabad, 1765. with Shah Alum II, and Shuja-ud-daulah of Oudh ; the treaty gave the Company the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. This was the third stage in the formation of the Bengal Presidency. It meant the British acquired the civil administration of what they already held by military conquest.

DOUBLE.
GOVERNMENT.

For the Diwani gave a legal aspect to a method of ruling called the Double Government. According to this, the Company had to protect Bengal, Bihar and Northern Orissa with an army, received the revenue of these districts, and had to pay Shah Alum 26 lakhs yearly ; on the other hand,

Shah Alum had to see that the Nawab of Bengal kept general good order and collected the revenue ; this meant that the Nawab carried on the general administration of those provinces ; but the Nawab in reality was only a titled pensioner and had little power. The Nawab, in turn, deputed two Indian officials, called Dewans, to collect the revenue. Under these, were two British officials who supervised the collecting actually done by Indian subordinates.

One Dewan was a Mohamedan appointed over Bengal ; the other was a Hindu appointed over Bihar. While collecting the revenue, they also carried on the general administration of their respective provinces but never without the hidden but real control of the Company's officials. This system of double government lasted in Bengal for seven years but proved a failure and was abolished by Hastings.

After the treaty of Allahabad, Clive gave his attention to bettering the internal administration of Bengal. While doing so, the Board of Directors ordered him to stop the sharing in the Provincial revenue by the Company's officials and their acceptance of presents. But, as the Board neither paid nor wanted to pay its officials an adequate

salary and as it was easy for officials without public scandal to grow quite wealthy, Clive, far from remedying matters, formed, with some senior civil and military officials, a society of trade for carrying on forbidden commerce, chiefly in salt.

**DOUBLE
BATTÀ.**

The taking of presents was discouraged to some extent. But Clive obeyed the Directors in stopping the double batta allowance. This allowance was originally an increase of pay granted officers while on field service. It was called batta. Mir Jafar had doubled the original batta. As the pay of officers, especially the junior, was found not enough to live suitably on, the double batta allowance was continued even when officers were not on field service. The Directors found this too expensive and restricted it to field service only. At the time, there were three British Brigades in Bengal, stationed respectively at Monghyr, Allahabad and Bankipore. The officers at Monghyr and Allahabad resigned their commissions simultaneously and expected Clive would yield. He did not but dismissed the ring-leaders.

In 1767 Clive ended his second administration of Bengal and left India.

**HIS
CHARACTER.**

His inflexible power of will and his unflinching courage gave him success both in

civil and military affairs. Against open and secret opposition, he introduced reforms and strove to put down bribery in the Administration. A slur is cast upon his name by his forgery of Watson's signature when dealing with Aminchund and in his favouring the Society of Trade. His claim on History rests upon his founding of the British Power in India.

HIS CAREER

As a Captain, he checked French ambition in the South and established British rule there. As a Colonel, he secured a firm footing in Bengal by obtaining the 24 Parganas through his victory at Plassey; this hold on Bengal enabled the Company, in his absence, to depose Mir Jafar and to nominate Mir Kassim as Nawab of Bengal. The Company received Burdwan, Midnapur and Chittagong from the latter. From a military point of view, the work begun by Clive was completed by Major Munro's victory at Buxar.

As Lord Clive, he completed the civil control of Bengal by receiving the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Northern Orissa.

This great soldier and true leader of men, who learned the art of war and of governing through the hard lessons of experience, was impeached on his final return to England

for his treatment of Aminchund and his acceptance of a jagir from Mir Jafar and for his accredited wealth. The fact is Clive left India a poorer man than when he arrived from England in 1765. He defended himself against the charges. Against Aminchund he declared that intrigue could then alone defeat intrigue ; he regretted the forgery ; to the jagir he was entitled as a personal gift from Mir Jafar and its acceptance was known to and approved of by the Directors ; his wealth was an exaggeration. He was acquitted. But owing to the strain of the trial and his failing health, in a fit of depression, he cut his throat with a razor and died at his residence in Berkeley Square, London. 1774.

CHAPTER XV.

The Aquisition organised.

For the next twenty years there was no great territorial expansion in the British occupation of India. There was great need of organisation.

On Clive's departure, Mr. Verelst and then Mr. Cartier acted as Governors of Bengal. Administration was in a confused state. Matters became worse under the Double Government. This form of Government was done away with in 1772. Nothing very definite took its place. Officials monopolised trade to their own benefit. Business men were unscrupulous in acquiring wealth. Intrigue and bribery were rampant. The courts of Justice were corrupt. The currency was in confusion and coin was scarce. Dacoits raided the country far and wide. In the South, Haidar Ali was hostile, and, in the West, the Marathas were a restless menace.

Throughout the land, the crumbling to ruin of the Mogul Empire saw the springing up of independent and war-faring realms.

WARREN HASTINGS.

1750-
1784.

These difficulties faced Warren Hastings when he was made Governor of Bengal in 1772. Born in 1732 of an old and honourable though a poor family, he came out at the age of 18 as a clerk in the Company, worked at Kossimbazar, was taken prisoner there by Siraj-ud-daulah, escaped to Falta, served under Clive, who realised his high talents, and was made a member of the Bengal Council in 1761; he left for England in 1764 and returned in 1769 as member of the Madras Council. From there he was appointed Governor of Bengal in 1772.

1769.

AS
GOVERNOR.

1772-
1774.

HIS POLICY.

Gifted, like Akbar, with a special talent for organisation and helped by a perfect knowledge of Persian and Bengali, of Urdu and of Arabic, he soon acquired first hand knowledge of the complex system of administration in Bengal. His insight into the character of the people led him to express his policy as follows: "I desire to found the authority of British Government in India on the ancient laws of the Hindus." Furthermore he held that the easiest way to rule the Indian was to rule according to Indian ideas,

manners and prejudices. Nothing, he declared could contribute more effectually to perpetuate British rule in India than the linking of Indian States through direct dependence and communication with the Crown.

It is not surprising that a man so far sighted as Hastings was, so charming and cultured in private life, loyal and honest, should have been very popular with the Indians. His political views might have realised themselves had he not been forced to give most of his energy to financial difficulties. It is no small matter for a trading company suddenly to have to govern a large disordered tract of country, to maintain an army and not to lose sight of profit through trade. The Board of Directors ordered Hastings to do this in the face of the difficulties then in Bengal. He had to raise money; to make good laws; to be ready for attack either from Haidar Ali or the Marathas. He set himself to the mighty task and formed a new administration in Bengal but earned for himself, as he said, "a world of enemies."

EVENTS

Revenue Reform : A. Clive's scheme of Double Government was abolished altogether. Officials who had failed in their duty were dismissed. British officials were

appointed as Collectors and Divisional Commissioners instead of Indians. A Board of Revenue was formed and was the foundation of the administrative system of to-day.

B. The land was reassessed and rented out on a farming lease for five years. The lease was auctioned.

C. Many harsh taxes were removed and monopolies that crippled the growth of trade were abolished.

Judicial Reforms : A. British Collectors were made presidents of the civil and criminal courts in their districts. Judicial powers hitherto exercised by Indians were thus curtailed.

B. Criminal and civil courts of Appeal were established at Calcutta. The Governor presided over the civil and an Indian over the criminal. In both Courts, skilled Hindu and Mohamedan lawyers helped the Judges.

C. A simple code of Hindu and Mohamedan law was drawn up.

D. Dacoity and robbery and the kidnapping of children were sternly suppressed. This brought order and peace to the terrorised country-side.

THE ROHILLA
WAR.

A clan of Afghans, called the Rohillas, had ruled for 35 years over a tract of country north of the Ganges. It was known as Rohilkhand and was rich and thus frequently raided by the Marathas. These were pre-

paring a fresh raid. The Rohillas promised the Nawab of Oudh, 40 lakhs, if he would aid them. The Nawab assisted the Rohillas and beat the Marathas off in 1773. The Rohillas failed to pay the 40 lakhs.

The Nawab of Oudh now appealed to Hastings to abide by the treaty of Benares and send him help to subdue the Rohillas. The treaty of Benares had been drawn up 1772. when Shah Alum II had left British protection for that of Mahadaji Scindia, the Maratha chief; by the treaty, the British had sold Korah and Allahabad for 50 lakhs to the Nawab of Oudh, and it had been agreed that for the sum of 40 lakhs, Hastings should send a British force to help the Nawab against the Rohillas whenever asked to do so.

The appeal came sooner than Hastings had expected but, fearing lest the Rohillas should league with the Marathas, he sent a force under Colonel Champion to the aid of the Nawab. The Rohillas were defeated at Miran Kutra and their leader Hafiz Rehmat Khan was killed.

All Rohilkhand was annexed, except the small state of Rampur which still retains its independence. By this annexation not only Oudh but Bengal was better protected against Maratha raiding.

FINANCIAL
DISTRESS.

THE
REGULATING
ACT.

Share-holders in the Company clamoured for higher profits ; they wrongly thought the Company owned unlimited wealth. But all profits were consumed in the expense of organising and administering so large a tract of territory as the Company possessed. In 1773 the Company, well-nigh bankrupt, asked Lord North's ministry for a loan of a million pounds. This demand revealed the need of method in the legislation of Bengal. The loan was granted but it brought the Company under the control of Parliament. The Regulating Act was passed. Its aim was to bring under rule the affairs of the Company. It has since formed the basis of British administration in India. By the Regulating Act : A. The Governor of Bengal was made the Governor-General of all the Company's possessions in India. In matters of great moment, the Governors of Madras and of Bombay had to obtain his sanction. B. A Council of 4 members was to govern with him. C. Both the Governor and the Council were to be bound by the votes of the majority of those members present at a sitting. D. A supreme court of Justice was established at Calcutta and the Chief Justice was appointed directly from England. Its jurisdiction was over all British subjects under the protec-

1773.

tion of the Company in India. The defects of the Act were : A. : The third Provision made it possible for the Governor-General to be checked whenever three of his Council chose to combine against him. This really occurred ; three of the councillors were bitter personal enemies of Hastings. B. The fourth provision was obscurely worded and led to much confusion and made the mistake of applying English Law fully to Indian conditions.

EVENTS.

AS GOVERNOR
GENERAL.

NUNKUMAR.

At the first sitting of the Governor-General 1773-1784. in Council, friction arose. Three out of the four members were bent on driving Hastings out of office. They were rooted enemies of his and, when the investigation of civil abuses began, they attacked Hastings with personal charges. Despite the great bitterness that set in, Hastings carried out his duty. But he was much hindered. The disunion became known to Nunkumar, a wealthy Brahmin, who hated Hastings. He accused the latter of bribery. Hastings was acquitted and in turn charged Nunkumar with conspiracy. Nunkumar was acquitted. But at this juncture, Morhan Parshad, a solicitor, on behalf of an Indian client, charged Nunkumar with forgery. The charge had been framed before Nunkumar's

quarrel with Hastings. The latter had nothing to do with the present charge. Nunkumar was tried in the Supreme Court before Sir Elijah Impey and two other Judges and a Jury. The Jury found him guilty and he was hanged. The Records show that 1775. the trial was fair. None of the Council strove to save Nunkumar which would have been done if Hastings had been at the bottom of this charge. It is false to assert that Nunkumar's death was a judicial murder.

1ST MARATHA
WAR
PAGE
2ND MYSORE
WAR
PAGE

From 1778-1782 pressing financial and political difficulties troubled Hastings. In 1778 France joined America in the War against England. Preparations for a possible French invasion had to be made and cost heavily. Both Haidar Ali of Mysore and the Marathas intrigued with the French. For this and other causes War broke out against them. But the Company's finances were very low and forced Hastings into two disagreeable incidents.

CHAIT SINGH. A. The affair with Chait Singh: the Raja of Benares, though illegitimate, had been raised to his position by Hastings.

Asaf-ud-daulah, his predecessor, had 1775. agreed by the treaty of Benares to pay the Company 22½ lakhs annually for the protection of his State. Hastings now demanded

5 lakhs more and a 1000 horse to defend Bihar. Chait Singh had the men and the money but refused both. Hastings needed both and, as it was the recognised usage for a vassal State to support the ruling power in times of stress, the refusal looked like rebellion. Hastings angrily went to Benares with a small escort and arrested Chait Singh. But his people rose, cut the escort to pieces and made Hastings flee for his life to the fort of Chunar. Colonel Popham came to his rescue and occupied Benares. Chait Singh fled to the Marathas; his successor was appointed; the revenue to be paid was increased to 50 lakhs a year and the State's coin-making, with its civil and criminal jurisdiction, was taken over by the Company. 1781.

b. The affair with the Begums of Oudh:

BEGUMS OF
OUDH.

In 1774 on the death of Shuja-ud-daulah. Asaf, his son, agreed to pay 22½ lakhs for the support of a British force in Oudh and to give the Begums *i. e.* the mother and widow of Shuja, two crores of rupees. The Begums had to pay 30 lakhs to the Company for this protection of their property. But Asaf was not able to fulfil his contract. He said he could do so if he got back the two crores given to the Begums. Hastings had been forced by the Council to bind Asaf to

the contract : he was aware, too, of the secret help in money which the Begums had given Chait Singh to aid in his revolt ; he wanted money, as the Directors of the Company pressed for the increase of financial sources. Hastings decided on getting for Asaf what he could of the Begum's treasure. The Begums were forced to yield 76 lakhs. Coercion was employed but such as Indian opinion of the day considered mild. Neither the Begums nor their attendants were mishandled. The fact is recorded that, when Hastings on his return was impeached and this affair was brought up against his honour, the Begums, of their own accord, sent sincere testimony in his favour. 1781.

**PITT'S INDIA
BILL.**

William Pitt, the Prime Minister, dis- 1784.
approved of several features in the administration of India by the Company and drew up a Bill which became law in India. Its main points were : A. A Board of Control appointed by the Crown was to manage the political affairs of the Company in India. It was held responsible to Parliament. B. Under its control also came a Board of Directors who were to manage the commercial affairs of the Company. c. Without the consent of the Board of Control, the Governor-General was not to interfere with

the affairs of Indian States. No scheme of conquest or extension of dominion was to be pursued. D. The Governor-General in an emergency could override the decision of his Council and act upon his own conviction. E. The Commander-in-chief and two civilians were added as members of the Council.

The effects of the Bill were : A. To bring the Company still more under the control of Parliament. B. The independent position of the Governor over his Council remedied a serious defect of the Regulating Act. C. The policy of non-intervention was emphasised.

Hastings feeling that his position was misunderstood both in England and in India, resigned in 1785. On his return, he was impeached over the Rohillas, Chait Singh and the Begums but was honourably acquitted and made a Marquess. His impeachment had lasted for seven years and was a gross injustice to a man, who, despite the greatest difficulties on all sides, had brought the British position in India safely through one of the crises in British history.

LORD CORNWALLIS,

Lord Cornwallis, who succeeded Warren Hastings, was the first Governor-General appointed by Parliament. He was a dis-

1788

1793.

tinguished soldier though compelled to surrender York Town in the American War of Independence. But he had never been in India before. Yet he had greater advantages to start with than Hastings had. His social rank and his European reputation freed him from the petty jealousy that one suffered from who, like Hastings, had risen to high office from lowlier beginnings. Moreover Pitt's India Bill gave him independent power over his Council. He was trusted by the Ministry in England and this gave him authority in every department of the Indian administration. He was Governor-General over all three Presidencies and was also Commander-in-chief. He had all the powers of genuine rulership and was rather the proconsul of Parliament in India than the chief governor of a trading company. During his term of office, the political sky was one of cloudy stillness before the burst of the French Revolutionary cyclone in Europe. Such a spell of quiet suited the carrying out of the ground-plan of reform laid down by Hastings. Internal organisation went on. Political insecurity within British territory yielded to a sense of stable rule. The British now ranked among the chief powers of India but as yet made no assertion of dominance.

HIS
CHARACTER.

Neither in talent nor in culture was he as brilliant and refined as Hastings was. He had great strength of will, was fearless, upright and high-minded and singularly free from greed of money, and bitterly opposed to bribery and jobbery of any kind. He was a hard-worker and, though public-spirited, yet a somewhat obstinate ruler. By temperament, he was more of a soldier than an administrator.

HIS POLICY,

His purpose was to go on with and improve the many reforms begun by Hastings and to carry out the policy of non-intervention laid down by Pitt's Bill. He had seen enough of warfare to make him seek peace. Important reforms were carried out. But instead of unbroken peace, he found war. Before he left India, he crippled the power of Tippu and extended the Madras Presidency by annexing half of that Sultan's dominions.

His rooted distrust of Indian officials led him to exclude them from any responsible position.

EVENTS.

REFORMS :—A. The reforms in the Revenue Department begun by Hastings were made more stable by the creation of the Indian Civil Service. Its officers were to receive fixed salaries and were not to accept

trade commissions or trade profits. Revenue officers were not to meddle any longer with judicial matters.

B. In the Judicial Department, he appointed a Judge of the civil court to each district. Over these were provincial courts in the principal towns ; and over these again were the two Supreme Courts, civil and criminal, at Calcutta. He did away with many of the crude punishments inflicted by the rude simplicity of the Mogul Law. Zemindars lost their power over the courts and over the Police, but could collect their own revenues. The Police were brought under suitable control.

PERMANENT
REVENUE
SETTLEMENT.

C. He introduced the Permanent Revenue settlement. As India is mainly agricultural, the chief source of Revenue was and is the Land Tax. From the earliest times, agents of the ruling power were appointed to collect the revenue. Their office became hereditary but no fixed system of collecting revenue was ever fully adopted. When the Mogul Empire fell to pieces, the descendants of collectors of revenue set themselves up as Rajas and Zemindars over the districts in which they had the hereditary right to collect revenue. Warren Hastings did not acknowledge such claims but farmed the

Company's land out on lease to the highest bidder for 5 years. This system proved harmful ; for, owing to the shortness of the lease, no temporary owner improved the land he had bargained for ; if improved, he had to pay a higher bid for it at the next auction, should he wish to keep the land. Thus the land for the want of a permanent owner suffered and the Revenue lessened.

WHAT IT IS. The Board of Directors disliked the farming out of land on lease introduced by Warren Hastings because it was an unstable policy. They decided on restoring the older system of granting the lands to the Zemindars. These had in return to pay a fixed revenue. The Directors were not seeking an increase in the annual revenue. Lord Cornwallis, therefore made no fresh survey of the land but calculated the revenue now to be paid, by taking the average of the amount of revenue collected in preceding years. A fixed average was found and this average was to remain for ever as the permanent revenue to be paid in. His scheme is known as the Permanent Revenue Settlement.

ITS EFFECTS. Lord Cornwallis, relying on his English experience, firmly believed that this scheme would help to form an ideal class of landlords eager to develop and enrich their States

and improve the lot of their tenants. But those, who did really gain, were the Zemindars. Those who lost most were, first, the cultivating class of tenants who came more under the control of the Zemindar, as no fixed rate of rent was settled on their behalf; secondly the Government, whose financial loss has been enormous. At present, it is not less than 30 million rupees a year. In consequence, the rest of India is more heavily taxed.

3RD MYSORE
WAR.
PAGE.

D. Lord Cornwallis was drawn into war with Tippu Sultan of Mysore because of the Sultan's attack on Travancore. Half of the Sultan's dominions were annexed. This was the second great step in the formation of the Madras Presidency. 1790-1792.

In 1793, when the War of the French Revolution began, Lord Cornwallis ordered the disarming of the French settlements in the South and left from Madras for England and was made a Marquess.

SIR JOHN SHORE.

Sir John Shore, a high official in the Company, assumed office. He attempted to carry out the non-intervention policy to the letter. When this became known, Nana Farnavis, at the head of the Maratha chiefs, took the Nizam of Haidarabad to 1793-1798.

task for not having paid chauth for years. The Nizam, though an ally of the British, appealed to Sir John in vain. Sir John did not want to protect the Nizam at the risk of offending the Marathas who might pay him back by a league with Tippu. His caution proved to be mistaken. The Nizam was badly defeated at Karda or Kurdla, lost half of his dominions and was fined a crore of rupees. This set the Nizam against the British, emboldened the Marathas, and encouraged Tippu of Mysore to plan his last attempt to expel the British out of India altogether. 1795.

But Sir John had learned a lesson. So, when, in 1797, Asaf-ud-daulah, Nawab of Oudh, died, and Vazir, Ali an impostor seized the throne, and Saadat Ali the Nawab's brother appealed to Sir John, Sir John intervened, and placed Saadat Ali on the throne and in return received Allahabad, an important strategic centre, and 26 lakhs yearly towards the up-keep of a protecting force in Oudh.

Then Sir John retired and died known as Baron Teignmouth.

CHAPTER XVI.

The Acquisition expands.

THE MARQUESS OF WELLESLEY.

Under the Marquess of Wellesley, there was a great and rapid extension in the British occupation of India. His policy brought that about.

1798.
1805.

Perhaps there never was a Governor-General better informed about Indian government than the Marquess of Wellesley. For many years he had been a member of the Board of Control. He was a man of vast learning, whose views were broad but imperialistic. His firm grasp of Indian politics made him self-reliant, even intolerant. He had little respect for the Board of Control. His foresight never misled him. In his choice of officers, both military and civil, he proved wise; he trusted them without reserve. He possessed sterling integrity of character, a firm will, a generous and cultured

nature. His gifts made him more of a statesman than an administrator. By reason of his rank, his family position and political experience in Europe, he was better able than Hastings to deal with the greater and more subtle aspects of policy.

STATE IN
INDIA.

When he assumed office, peril faced the Company. Sir John Shore's policy had bred strife. Tippu of Mysore had ripened his hostile designs and was supported by French influence. It was the same with the Marathas. The Nizam had grown into a sullen foe. The Carnatic was in complete disorder. Under Ranjit Singh, the Sikhs had become a nation of warriors and were not over friendly. Zaman Shah, the Afghan ruler of the Punjab, was in league with Tippu.

The Nizam, Tippu and the Marathas sought French help in order to drive the British out of India. Though they knew too little of European geography, of its history, and of its actual politics to realise what the French could do for them, danger lay in this that their attitude was fostered chiefly by Napoleon, who openly ambitioned the overthrow of the British in India. The War of the French Revolution was raging. India had been drawn into European poli-

tics. Her destiny lay either under French Rule or that of the British. Wellesley was fitted, as few could have been, to meet the situation. His training enabled him to grasp the relationship between Indian politics and the issues of the French War of Revolution. It led him to adopt a policy based not so much upon the situation in the country as upon the destruction of French designs on India.

HIS POLICY

His policy had a twofold purpose. It aimed first at making the British power so supreme by a system of political alliance and annexation that, secondly, Napoleon's ambition to overthrow the British in India should be impossible. The first aim was a means to the second. The second was what he determined on securing.

SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM

His system of political alliance is known as the Subsidiary. It lay in this. A State whether willing or not, was asked if it would accept British alliance, subsidise a British force for its protection within its own boundaries, and accept a Resident at its court to control its policy. This meant subservience to the British and, hence, the actual loss of its political independence though seemingly free.

His policy of annexation was applied to those States which were suffering under misgovernment. No man was more firmly convinced than Wellesley that India would prosper best if under British rule. Whatever may be thought of this view, the fact is that previous to the British, India thrived most whenever under a single central power.

In carrying out his policy, Wellesley was fortunate in having excellent officers to help in doing so. His two brothers were in the South: Arthur, afterwards the Duke of Wellington, and Henry Lord Cowley, who, later on, held high political office in Europe. Among other distinguished officers were Elphinstone and Malcolm.

His policy of subsidiary alliance was first applied to the Nizam, then to Tippu of Mysore, and was followed by the annexation of Tanjore, the Ceded Districts, the Carnatic, Surat and a large portion of Oudh; finally it was applied to the Peshwa of Poona, the Rajputs and the Gaekwar of Baroda. The result was that the British power was dominant in India. But his policy was by no means approved of by the Board of Control or by all of those who served under him in India. His brother Arthur, it is said, prevented the entire annexation of, Haidarabad

and Mysore. Wellesley's own attempt to make his policy agree with Pitt's India Bill was unsatisfactory. He was recalled to prevent any further application of his policy.

EVENTS. Subsidiary Alliances were made in the following cases :

SUBSIDIARY ALLIANCES. A. **THE NIZAM** :—Wellesley resolved to break the force of the French in the South where it was most influential. He began with the Nizam. The latter, had been estranged by Shore's failure to help him against the Marathas and had reorganised his army under the guidance of Raymond, a French officer. Raymond died at this critical moment. Through skilful diplomacy and shrewd military display, the Nizam's army of 14,000 men with its train of artillery **1798.** was, in a few hours and without the loss of life, disarmed and disbanded by Malcolm. The Nizam accepted a subsidiary alliance and was made dependent on the Company.

4TH MYSORE WAR. PAGE. B. **TIPPU OF MYSORE** :—Tippu was called on to explain his dealings with the French. His reply was evasive and scornful. War was declared and carried on with lightning **1799.** rapidity. Most of the Mysore territory was annexed. The Hindu Wodeyar Dynasty was restored and the State became subsidiary to the Company.

2ND MARATHA
WAR.
PAGE.

c. In 1799, Maratha chiefs such as the Peshwa, Daulat Scindia, Jaswant Rao Holkar, and the Raja of Kolhapur were politically at strife. When Nana Farnavis died in 1800, matters grew worse and, in 1802, fighting began. Jaswant Rao Holkar defeated the Peshwa at Poona. The latter asked for British protection and accepted Wellesley's subsidiary alliance called the Treaty of Bassein. This treaty led Daulat Scindia and the Raja of Berar to declare war against Wellesley. They were defeated and accepted the subsidiary alliance of Surji-Anjungaon and of Deogaon. 1802.

THE RAJPUTS.

d. The Rajputs impressed by Wellesley's victory and fearing Maratha aggression accepted a subsidiary alliance and ceded parts of their territory in return for protection. 1804.

THE
GAEKWAR.

e. The Gaekwar of Baroda also accepted a subsidiary alliance and ceded certain districts in his territory for the maintenance of a protecting British force. 1805.

Annexations resulted in the following instances :

ANNEXATIONS
TANJORE.

A. Tanjore, a Maratha State founded in 1640 by Shahji Bhonsle, had fallen into disorder. On the death of its Raja, dispute arose as to the succession. Wellesley per- 1799.

suaded the rightful heir to resign and receive a pension and to hand over the State to the Company.

SURAT.

B. Surat :—The district of Surat had long been controlled by the British and the Nawab. When the Nawab died in 1799, it was annexed.

THE CEDED
DISTRICTS.

C. THE CEDED DISTRICTS :—The districts of Bellary, Cuddapah, Anantapur, and Kurnool, given to the Nizam in 1792 for his aid in the 3rd Mysore War, were now ceded 1800. by him to support a British subsidiary force.

THE
CARNATIC

D. THE CARNATIC :—Mohamed Ali, the aged Nawab of the Carnatic, died in 1795. The system of double government had spread misery throughout his territory. Umdat-ul-Umra, his successor, had intrigued secretly with Tippu. Wellesley deposed him, appointed a grandson of Mohamed Ali as a nominal successor and took over the administration of the Carnatic. 1801.

ODDH.

E. OUDH :—In the north, the annexation of half the province of Oudh followed next. It was feared that Zaman Shah, the Afghan ruler of the Punjab, might raid Oudh. Saadat Ali, the Nawab of Oudh, had no suitable army at his command. He was called upon to reform his army and to im-

prove the government of his province. The Nawab tried to evade compulsion. Wellesley, by the Treaty of Lucknow, annexed ^{1801.} half his territory, including Gorakpur and Rohilkhand and the territory between the Ganges and the Jumna.

REFORMS.

Reforms under Wellesley, chiefly lay in re-organising the administration of those states which had been annexed. In spite of his costly wars, Wellesley brought finance into order, and bettered the public credit. He founded a college at Fort William for the training of young Civil Servants and built the Government House at Calcutta.

REVIEW

The seven years of his Governor-Generalship from the most important and critical period in the building up of British dominion in India on the basis laid by Clive and Warren Hastings. He had set out for India in the darkest hour of the intense struggle between the British and the French in the War of Revolution. On his reaching India, the Government stood halting between a policy of non-intervention in Indian quarrels leading to isolation within British borders and a policy of going forward to meet and disarm rivals before their strength could destroy British security. Wellesley thought it idle to rely on the strength of treaties with

Tippu, the Marathas and the Nizam. He adopted the policy of going forward and defeating opposition before French intrigue could grow more dangerous. In this he succeeded. In the north he extended British territory from Bengal to the upper course of the Junna; in the south-east, by securing Cuttack he linked up Bengal with the Madras Presidency; in the west, the concession of territory, he obtained, nearly completed the command of the whole coast-line. Within the next forty years, his successors in office completed what he had planned of dominion in India.

CHAPTER XVII.

The Conflict with Mysore. 1767 1799.

In the middle ages, Mysore was the Hoy-sala Kingdom, a part of the Vijayanagar Empire, but when in 1565, this Empire broke up, it passed under the rule of the Hindu Wodeyar Dynasty. This Dynasty lost its vigour towards the middle of the 18th century. Its weakness gave the throne to Haidar Ali.

HAIDAR ALI. 1722- 1782.

Haidar Ali was a Mohamedan prince and an officer of the Mysore Government. His small army was better equipped than any the Raja had. He won the influence of Nanjaraj, the chief minister, and was appointed commander of Dindigul. Later on he received the jagir of Bangalore and became commander-in-chief. In 1761 more than half of Mysore came under his direct control. An effort to break his power failed. He captured Bedmore, then a rich town, and,

when the Raja died, plundered the capital and finally usurped the throne. 1766.

THE FIRST MYSORE WAR. 1767-1769.

CAUSES.

Haidar encroached upon the neighbouring districts of the Nizam and of the Marathas. The British found he was intriguing with the French. So the British, the Nizam and the Marathas combined against him.

CONTEST.

Haidar bought off the Marathas, bribed the Nizam and thus isolated the British. He attacked Colonel Smith at Changanna but was repulsed and defeated at Trincomalee.

The Nizam, fearing the British, deserted Haidar and surrendered the Northern Circars. 1768. Haidar again attacked Colonel Smith at Ambur but had to retire. Receiving help from Bombay, Colonel Smith seized Mangalore and Onore. One defeat after the other cost Haidar half of his possessions; but he rallied and defeated the British at Bangalore, recovered his lost territory and surrounded Madras. The Council at Madras was panic-stricken and proposed the treaty of Madras. Both parties restored their conquests and agreed to assist each other in defensive wars. In this treaty the Marathas were also included as allies of Mysore and the British. The treaty proved to be a silly agreement. 1769.

RESULT.

WARREN
HASTINGS
GOV.-GEN.
CAUSES.

THE SECOND MYSORE WAR.

1780-
1784.

Within a year of the signing of the treaty of Madras, Haidar and the Marathas fell out with each other. In 1769, Madhavrao I led a Maratha expedition against Haidar Ali, forced him to yield territory and to pay 32 lakhs. Haidar delayed payment but met with defeat at Cherkuli and was besieged in Seringapatam.

1771.

By the Treaty of Madras, in 1769, the British had promised to help him in a defensive war. Haidar asked for help but was refused as the Marathas also claimed British help and were equally keen on proving Haidar was the aggressor. He had to surrender his northern possessions to the Marathas, pay them a heavy indemnity, and send them an annual tribute. He burned to take his revenge on the British.

His opportunity came. In 1778, France sided with America against England. Hastings, acting under orders from England and against the advice of the Madras Council, took the French port of Mahe on the Malabar Coast. It was a useful port to Haidar, for, through it, he received French supplies. He joined in a coalition with the Nizam and the Marathas to drive the British out,

1779.

CONTEST.

Haidar Ali swept down upon the Carnatic 1780.
plain through the pass of Chandgama and
took Conjeeveram. His son Tippu cut to
pieces a British force under Colonel Baillie
at Pollilore. Haidar captured Vellore.

Hastings, who had not sufficiently be-
lieved the Madras Council in its warning
about Haidar, had now to save the Carnatic.
He pacified the Nizam by restoring Guntur
and bribed the Raja of Berar to allow troops
to pass through his territory and despatched a
force by sea under Sir Eyre Coote and another
by land under Colonel Pearse, to the South.

Sir Eyre Coote overcame Haidar at Porto 1781.
Novo. Colonel Pearse defeated him at
Pollilore, Sholingar and Tellicherry.

A French sea-force under Admiral de
Suffren now came to Haidar's help but with
it he was badly defeated at Arni. Haidar
died that year. 1782.

It must be borne in mind that the 2nd
Mysore War coincided with the 1st Maratha
War. The latter ended before Haidar's
death and, by the treaty of Salbai, the Mara-
thas not only withdrew from the side of
Haidar, but agreed to force him to restore
his conquests to the British and the Nawab
of the Carnatic. This left Tippu, the son of
Haidar, the choice either to make peace or

to fight on alone. He fought on alone and won the battles of Bednore and Mangalore. 1783.

The British seized Dindigul, Palghat and Coimbatore. Sir Eyre Coote died at this juncture and Colonel Fullerton took over charge and was on his way to attack Tippu at Seringapatam, when Lord Macartney, the Governor of Madras, against the wish of Hastings, proposed peace to Tippu.

RESULT.

THE TREATY OF MANGALORE:—By this 1784.
treaty, all the conquests made by either party during the war were mutually restored and all prisoners were to be freed.

TIPPU.

1784-
1799.

The war had ended in dishonour to the British. Tippu did not free all his captives and grew more insolent. He continued to intrigue with the French against the British. For this purpose, he sent an embassy to the court of Louis XVI in Paris at a moment when the political relationship between France and England was strained. He also asked the Sultan of Turkey for aid. In India, however, his arrogance made enemies all round.

The growth of Tippu's ambition alarmed the Nizam and the Marathas and, acting under the advice of Nana Farnavis, they

combined to despoil Tippu of his power; 1787. they forced him to yield a district and pay 45 lakhs of rupees. On reaching India, Lord Cornwallis was asked by the Nizam for protection against Tippu. His guarded reply promised help against a foe who was not an ally. On hearing of this, Tippu grew more defiant, for he was not an ally of the British.

LORD
CORNWALLIS,
GOV.-GEN.
CAUSE,

THE THIRD MYSORE WAR.

1790-
1792.

Without great cause, Tippu attacked the Raja of Travancore who was an ally of the British. The Nizam and the Marathas, who feared Tippu, combined with the British on condition that Tippu's conquered territory should be equally shared.

CONTEST.

General Medows took Dindigul. A force 1791. from Bombay took Malabar. Lord Cornwallis captured Bangalore and defeated Tippu at Arikera nine miles from Seringapatam, the capital. But this gain was of no avail as supplies failed. Cornwallis and he had to retire to Bangalore. When ready again, he attacked Seringapatam. Tippu made peace.

RESULT.

THE TREATY OF SERINGAPATAM :—Tippu 1792. had to cede half of his dominions, pay 30 million rupees and give his two sons up as hostages. In dividing his territory, the British got Malabar, Baramahal, Tellicherry,

Dindigul and Coorg; the Nizam obtained Cuddapah and recovered all his former possessions north of the Tungabhadra; the Marathas received that section which brought their southern frontier down to the same river. Neither the Nizam nor the Marathas thad, however, rendered much active assistance.

This Treaty marked the second stage in the formation of the Madras Presidency.

THE FOURTH MYSORE WAR.

1798-
1799.

THE MAR-
QUESS OF
WELLESLEY.
GOV.-GEN.
CAUSES.

Tippu thirsted for revenge. He made up his mind to drive the British out of India and took to plotting. Zaman Shah, the Afghan ruler of the Punjab, received an embassy from him asking for aid. The French Governor of Mauritius formed an offensive and defensive alliance with him. French officers arrived to train his army. Napoleon treated him as a citizen of the new Republic, and wrote saying that, as he was in Egypt, he would soon invade India and expel the British.

As the British and the French were at war in Europe, Wellesley, with the approval of the Board of Control, called on Tippu to discontinue his alliance with the French and to enter into subsidiary alliance. Tippu refused. The Nizam helped the British,

CONTEST.

The War ended quickly. General Harris set out from Madras and General Stuart from Malabar. Tippu was defeated at Sedasir by Stuart and at Malavelli by Harris. During the siege of Seringapatam, Tippu fell fighting. 1799.

RESULT.

Tippu's two sons were pensioned and sent to Vellore. The ancient Wodeyar Dynasty was restored under the control of a Resident. The British received Canara, Coimbatore, and the Wynaad. The Nizam received a large tract of territory afterwards known as the Ceded Districts. The Madras Presidency was now completed.

After the Fourth Mysore War, the administration of the State was left to Purnia, an able Brahmin minister, till the Prince of Wodeyar should come of age. The Raja assumed control of the State in 1811 but was so incapable of his trust that in 1831 Lord Bentinck placed the State under British administration. This lasted for 50 years. Lord Ripon restored the Wodeyar family to power. Since then the State has prospered excellently. 1831. 1881.

HAIDAR ALI AND TIPPU.

THEIR
CHARACTERS.

Haidar Ali was a fierce, bold adventurer, whose rugged gifts raised him easily above his rivals and won great power for him amid

the turmoil in India during the 18th century. He could neither read nor write but spoke five Indian languages fluently. His memory was extraordinary. Few equalled him in complicated arithmetical calculations. He was a very shrewd and accurate judge of character. In ruling his State, he was methodical and swift in despatch of business and supervised in detail every act of government. But he believed in terrorism and even flogged high officials and his own son in public.

With no principles in religion or in politics, he lived and fought for his ambition with open selfishness. The close of his life was overcast with sadness. He foresaw he had failed against the British and bitterly resented his desertion in the hour of need by the Nizam and the Marathas. French aid had come too late. Not long before his death he said: "I have committed a great error. Between me and the English, there were grounds for dissatisfaction but not for war. I might have made them my friends. I could have ruined them by land but I could never have dried up the sea."

Tippu, though cleverer than Haidar, was far inferior in character. He was extremely vain and wanted everything of importance

to originate through him. His whims and fancies made it difficult to deal with him. He was well educated for his time and spoke Persian, Urdu and Kanarese fluently and possessed a valuable library. He wrote instructions on all civil and military topics, devised a new Calendar and a new scale of weights and a fantastic coinage. Though very cruel to enemies and prisoners, he was not too harsh with his own people. He was a staunch Mohamedan and, though personally brave, was not so good a general as Haidar.

CHAPTER XVIII.

The Acquisition Continues.

LORD CORNWALLIS.

1805.

Lord Cornwallis again came out as Governor-General. He was quite an old man. The burden of office was beyond his strength. Yet, with characteristic energy, he began to reverse Wellesley's policy. But he died within a few months.

SIR GEORGE BARLOW.

1805-
1807.

Sir George Barlow, the senior member of Governor-General's Council, succeeded Lord Cornwallis. Though capable enough to fill an inferior office, he did not suit his high position. His views were narrow. Nor was he at all liked. He carried out a non-intervention policy. He promised the Marathas not to support the Rajputs if the latter were attacked. This promise betrayed a staunch ally. General Lake protested in vain against it and resigned.

VELLORE
MUTINY.

Sir John Craddock, the commander-in-1806.
chief, with the consent of Lord William Bentinck the Governor of Madras, introduced several changes in the army regulations. On parade sepoys were not to wear earrings or caste-marks ; they had to shave their chins and trim their beards after a certain model ; no turbans were to be worn but a head-dress something like a hat. At Vellore, a rumour spread that sepoys would soon be forced to become Christians. Most of the sepoys belonged to Mysore. The members of Tippu's family fomented the discontent. Mutiny broke out and several British officers and soldiers were killed. It was soon quelled. The ring-leaders were executed ; the members of Tippu's family were sent to Calcutta and the regulations were withdrawn.

When Lord Minto became Governor-General, Sir George Barlow again became a member of the Bengal Council but was soon after appointed Governor of Madras.

LORD MINTO.

1807-
1813.

Lord Minto, President of the Board of Control, accepted the Governor-Generalship reluctantly. He had had much Parliamentary experience and was well acquainted with Indian affairs. He followed a middle way between interference and non-interference

in dealing with Indian States. But the result of his rule in India finally convinced the Board of Control that the policy of non-intervention could not always be adhered to. His firm attitude towards Ranjit Singh carried the British frontier up to the Sutlej and secured peace there for 37 years.

In foreign policy he was most successful. His term of office coincided with the critical years of the Peninsula War and of Napoleon's invasion of Russia. Every triumph of Napoleon in Europe was accompanied by loss to France in Asia. Mauritius and the Bourbon Isles, the Isles of France and the Moluccas were seized by British expeditions under Lord Minto's guidance. East of the Cape of Good Hope, the British had no rival **1811.** But Napoleon did his best to combine Asiatic nations against the British. The Dutch were on his side but had little power.

Lord Minto sent political missions into Persia and Afghanistan to counteract French **1808.** influence at work there. Though little fruit resulted from these missions, his over-sea conquests broke French political power in the East.

**EVENTS.
INDIAN.**

A. BUNDELKHAND :—Anarchy prevailed there. Robber chiefs, such as Amir Khan **1808.** the Pathan, raided the province. They **1812.**

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threatened adjoining British territory. After four years of struggle, order was restored by the capture of the Kalingar fortress.

B. DEALING WITH THE SIKHS :—Be- 1809.
tween the Sutlej and the Jumna lay Sarhind, a province occupied by Sikh chieftains. They quarrelled amongst themselves and the Chief of Jind asked Ranjit Singh for aid. The latter, who was the most powerful of the Sikhs and ruler of the Punjab, gave that aid and occupied Ludhiana and claimed rulership over Sarhind. The chiefs fearing him asked help of the British. A mission under Mr. Metcalfe was sent. Ranjit Singh agreed to retire. Sarhind came under British protection and a British force was stationed at Ludhiana. British influence thus extended from the Jumna as far as the Sutlej. This agreement is known as the treaty of Amritsar.

C. TRAVANCORE : The Raja declared himself unable to pay for the British Subsidiary force in his territory. The Resident suspected Velu Tempi, the chief minister, of instigating the Raja and had him removed. Velu Tempi rebelled and murdered those British who fell into his hands. The rebel- 1813.
lion was put down and the State was ruled by the British till 1813 when it was returned to the Raja.

FOREIGN.

A England was at war with Napoleon 1807-
 Lord Minto seized Mauritius, the Bourbon 1813.
 Isles, and the Moluccas. This freed the seas
 of French privateering on British commerce.
 At sea the British had no rival left from the
 Cape of Good Hope to Cape Horn.

B The Dutch sided with the French
 against the British. They lost the Java and
 Spice Islands. Bourbon and the Dutch
 islands were restored in 1815.

THE NEW
CHARTER

Parliament threw open Indian trade to 1813
 the whole nation but left the British the
 monopoly of trade with China. All Mission-
 aries were free to enter the country.

THE MARQUESS OF HASTINGS.

Francis Rawdon Hastings, Baron Rawdon 1813.
 in the peerage of Great Britain and Earl of 1823.
 Moira in the peerage of Ireland, belonged to
 two of the most ancient noble families of
 Great Britain. During his early life he
 served in the American War of Independence
 but, after that, he grew extravagant and dis-
 sipated. His close friendship with the
 Prince Regent, afterwards George IV, did
 him no honour. So, when at the age of 59
 he came to India, it was not probable he
 would do much. He however, is one of
 the prominent Governor-Generals. He
 worked very hard at the head of the civil

and military administration, never went to the hills and was always at his desk at four in the morning.

He found that the non-intervention policy of Lord Cornwallis and that of Sir George Barlow had left seven different quarrels likely to demand the decision of arms. By following the policy of the Marquess of Wellesley, he firmly established British power as dominant in India.

He saw the need of protecting the trade route between India and China and occupied Singapore in 1819. It was then a poor island inhabited by a handful of Malay fishermen. Singapore has proved to be an acquisition of utmost value to the Empire.

Not only was he successful as a soldier but also as a ruler. To educate the people of India, he established schools and colleges, endeavoured to have English taught and permitted the issue of the first vernacular newspapers. The financial position of the Company was improved. The Jumna Canal, first built by Feroze Shah in 1356 was reopened. Warfare, however, characterises his term of office.

EVENTS
CAUSES.

A. THE NEPALESE WAR :—The Gurkhas, ^{1814.}
a Rajput race, had conquered the valley of ^{1816.}
Nepal in 1768 and having extended their

sway from Bhutan to the Sutlej, forced the Nawab of Oudh to cede the district of Gorak-^{1801.} pur. This brought British territory into contact with theirs. The Gurkhas frequently^{1814.} raided British territory. They finally seized two large British districts north of Oudh and overran Butwal and Sheoraj. As they refused to yield these territories and wanted to extend their power down to the Ganges, war began.

Hastings sent four divisions by different routes into Nepal. Had the Governor-General's orders been obeyed, success would have followed more quickly. But three of the four generals were self-willed, incapable leaders. The early operations met with disaster. General Ochterlony saved the situation. He defeated the Nepalese at Malaon,^{1814-1815.} Jutah, Kumaoun and Mahwanpur. Almora and the fortress of Hanharpur were captured. Kathmandu, the capital, was threatened. The Nepalese sued for peace.^{1816.}

RESULT.

TREATY OF SAGAU LI;—The Nepalese^{1816.} ceded the territory between the Gogra and the Sutlej; the Tarai; the provinces of Gharwal and Kumaoun and Dehra Dun; and agreed to receive a British Resident at Kathmandu. The political advantages of the treaty were that all danger from the

N. E. Frontier was removed and a staunch ally was gained. Nepal retained its independence.

NOTE :—The British Resident does not interfere with the internal administration and is restricted in his movements. Most of its territory has never been visited by any European. Permission to visit any part is rarely granted. During the recent war, Nepal rendered valuable assistance.

B. The news of the early failure of the British in Nepal re-awakened the hope among several Indian princes of expelling the British. Ranjit Singh, the Sikh ruler of the Punjab, moved troops towards the Sutlej. The leading Maratha chiefs began to organise and equip their forces. Pathan bands under Amir Khan, the Pindari Chief, assembled in Rajputana. Had all these combined, they would have realised their hope. To check them Hastings had no adequate force. Yet he resolved on first extirpating the Pindaris. This he foresaw would lead to war with the Marathas, for Daulat Scindia, Jaswant Rao Holkar and the Raja of Berar were in close touch with the Pindaris and employed them as mercenary troops.

THE PINDARIS.
PAGE.

c. The Pindari Campaign began and after two years of struggle India was freed of a pest which had thrived on the policy of non-intervention. 1815-1817.

FOURTH
MARATHA
WAR,
PAGE.

D. As was foreseen, war with the Marathas followed. It ended in the overthrow of that power. The Peshaw's territory was annexed and the Bombay Presidency formed. Holkar lost all his territory except the State of Indore. The Bhonsle of Berar's possessions were annexed in part and now form the Central Provinces. Daulat Scindia gave up Ajmere, which strengthened the British position in Rajputana. 1818.

The Marquess of Hastings had now secured general peace in India under the dominant control of British rule. His political settlement of central India completed the policy of Lord Wellesley. Contest with Indian powers was practically over. Henceforward it became the principle of public policy that every State, except the Punjab and Sindh, should submit the control of its foreign relations to the British Government, and all external disputes to that Government, and follow its advice in its internal management. From the frontiers of Sindh and the Punjab, down along the west coast to Cape Comorin and up along the Bay of Bengal to the frontier of Burma, the sea-board and the

mainland were under British authority; in the north, from Bengal to the edge of the deserts bordering on Upper Sindh and the Punjab, the whole belt of land with the Himalayas as a barrier was under the same control. On two sections disturbance was liable: on the north-east where the Burmese were threatening Assam and on the north-west where the Sikhs beyond the Sutlej were formidable.

Henceforward the work of peaceful consolidation between the ruling power and Indian States went on.

MONSTUART
ELPHINSTONE

NOTE.—Monstuart Elphinstone, who was an eminent soldier and political officer, joined the Company at the age of 18. He took part in the Battle of Assaye and was sent as ambassador to Kabul in 1809, and was the British Resident at the court of Bajirao II in 1818. The Peshwa was forced by Elphinstone to sign the treaty of Poona, which led to the annexing of the Peshwa's territories. For seven years he was Governor of Bombay and drew up a complete code of civil and criminal law and framed rules for the Police and Revenue Departments. He wrote a well known history of India. He died as Governor-General of Canada in 1859.

1803
1827

1803

1820.
1827.

SIR DAVID.
OCHTERLONY.

NOTE :—Sir David Ochterlony was a distinguished soldier and won fame during the 2nd Mysore War and bravely held out at Delhi against Jaswant Rao Holkar. He was the only general who was successful against the Gurkhas in the Nepal Campaign. His ability saved the whole situation for the British. When the Bhurtpore dispute arose, he would have settled matters by force but Lord Amherst would not allow that and he resigned and died shortly after.

1814.

1825.

LORD AMHERST.

Lord Amherst succeeded in office when the Marquess of Hastings resigned. He was not altogether fit for the post. Though he sought peace, he was involved in war with Burma. During that war, steamships were first used in Indian seas. They evoked great admiration.

1823-
1828.

EVENTS.
PAGE.

A. THE FIRST BURMESE WAR :—Maha Bandula, the Burmese general, was ordered to march from Arakan into Bengal, to drive the British out and to bring the Governor-General a prisoner bound in golden chains back to Burma. The Court at Ava regarded the British with ineffable contempt. The war dragged on for two years and ended in the Treaty of Yendabu.

1824.

1826.

B. BHURTPORE :—The mishandling of the Burmese War caused unrest to rise again throughout India.

Durjan Sal, cousin of the infant Raja of Bhurtpore, claimed the throne and defied the authority of Sir David Ochterlony, the Resident at Delhi, who had approved of the young Raja's accession. Lord Amherst dis- 1826.
allowed of Sir David's moving of troops into the State and replaced him by Sir Charles Metcalfe. The latter persuaded Lord Amherst to allow Lord Combermere to take the fort of Bhurtpore. When this was done, a Council of Regency was set up to rule the State.

CHAPTER XIX.

The Acquisition made firm.

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK.

1828-
1835.

Lord William Bentinck had acted as Governor of Madras but had been recalled because of the Vellore Mutiny. He never admitted the justice of that recall. His period of office was free of war and is noted for its many improvements. It is a bright page in the annals of the British. He ruled "with eminent prudence, integrity and benevolence."

EVENTS.
REFORMS.

A. FINANCIAL :—Additions were made to the Revenue by improving the control of the opium monopoly ; by cutting down civil and military expenditure ; by a revision of the land assessments in the Agra Provinces and in the Madras Presidency.

THE
RYOTWARI
SYSTEM.

In the Madras Presidency the Ryotwari System prevailed. Under it the Government

tinck to make English the official language and the medium of Education in India. His support was given to Sir Charles Metcalfe when the latter granted greater freedom to the Indian Press. His short and brilliant essays on Clive and Warren Hastings are biassed and historically unfair.

He is the author also of the Indian Penal Code. On his return he was made a Baron and died in 1859.

**THE
CHARTER**

NOTE :—THE CHARTER OF 1833 —By this Charter the Company ceased to be merely a Trading Company. As part of the Imperial British Government it held India in trust for the Crown.

LORD AUCKLAND,

1836
1842.

Lord Auckland was regarded by Parliament as a peaceful man likely to follow the policy of Lord Bentinck. He would have done so if his weakness of character had not led him to adopt the advice of evil councillors, who drew him into political intrigue and military enterprises which ended in the deepest humiliation the British power had suffered in the East. He had no policy of his own. By nature he was kindly and, at the outset, devoted himself to improvements in education, in medical science and in taxation. Had he continued so, his reputa-

tion would have been untarnished. Unfortunately, he took to a warlike policy both dishonourable and blundering.

EVENTS.

When Lord Auckland assumed office, French influence was at an end in Asiatic affairs. Russia was now feared. On the death of Napoleon, Russia recovered her freedom and extended her dominion as far as the Caspian Sea and had commanding influence over Persia. She began to intrigue with Afghanistan. A Russian invasion of India was feared. A mission under Mr. Burnes was sent to Kabul to win the friendship of Dost Mohamed, the ruler of Afghanistan. But the latter was no friend of Ranjit Singh's. He knew of the treaty of Amritsar with Lord Minto and of that with Lord Bentinck and probably thought Russian friendship of more value than the Company's. The mission failed. Lord Auckland resolved to depose Dost Mohamed, who had usurped the right of Shah Shuja, the lawful Amir, and to replace the latter, who was friendly, on the throne again.

FIRST AFGHAN
WAR.
PAGE.

This led to the First Afghan War. It 1837-
ended in disaster to the British. 1842.

WAR WITH CHINA:—In dealing with China, the British representatives there, behaved in 1840-
so high handed a manner that the Chinese 1842.

CHINA.

Government in putting down the smuggling of opium into China by British merchants from India severely treated British ships and subjects. Sir Hugh Gough went there with an army from India and after several victories secured the treaty of Nankin. Four ports were opened to British trade, namely, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo and Shanghai. Hong-kong was annexed.

Lord Auckland was recalled in 1842.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH.

EVENTS

A. Lord Ellenborough brought the First 1842-1844.
Afghan War to a close. British honour was vindicated but Dost Mohamed was allowed to return to the throne unconditionally and ruled till 1863.

SINDH

B. WAR WITH SINDH. In 1786 a Baluchi chieftain took Sindh and on his death it was divided into the three States of Haidarabad, Khairpur, and Muzpur, each under an Amn. 1832.
They agreed to open up the Indus and the roads of Sindh to the British for the purposes of trade but not for military use. So long as Sindh remained independent, the navigation of the Indus was liable to be closed to the British. In the event of trouble in the Punjab or on the N. W. Frontier, this would prove a serious obstacle to the movement of British troops. Lord 1833.

Bentinck sought to remove the obstacle by a treaty of peace with the Amirs when Russian intrigue was active in Afghanistan, but he failed

CAUSES.

After the first Afghan War, the Amirs showed themselves less friendly. Lord Auckland had used the Indus for military purposes in carrying on the fight against Afghanistan. He pleaded that Afghanistan was their common enemy. Sukkur and other strategic centres in Sindh were occupied. Finally 1839. the Amirs were forced to accept a subsidiary alliance

CONTEST

Lord Ellenborough was bent on annexing Sindh and appointed Sir Charles Napier, who was of the same mind, in command at 1842. Haidarabad. Such demands were made upon the Amirs that they were driven to fight. Colonel Outram, the British Commissioner, was attacked at his residence in Haidarabad. He was however quite opposed to the aggressive policy of Lord Ellenborough. The latter seized upon this attack as an excuse for waging war. Sir Charles Napier defeated the Amirs at Miani Haidarabad, Muzrai and Amarkot. 1843.

RESULT

Sindh was annexed and the Amirs exiled to Benares. Though a strategic position was secured and the people prospered more

than before, the annexation cannot be justified. Colonel Outram, the British Commissioner, though a warm friend of Napier's, protested strongly against it, resigned and pleaded for its restoration when in England. But it was held that "the mischief of retaining was less than the mischief of abandoning Sindh."

GWALIOR:—On the death of Jankaji 1844. Scindia, a regent, Dada Kasji, was appointed on behalf of Scindia's son. The British Government sanctioned this. Palace intrigue expelled the regent and the Gwalior army, 40,000 strong, threatened the peace of the State. Lord Ellenborough demanded the disbanding of the army. This was refused. A force under Sir Hugh Gough defeated the army at Maharajpur and Pun-nair. No annexation followed but the Maharani Tara Bai was deposed and pensioned. The army was reduced and a Council of Regency appointed to rule the State. This affair with Gwalior was fortunate; it saved danger on the British flank when the fierce struggle against the Sikhs, 70,000 strong, began shortly after.

C. REFORMS:—Slavery was abolished in 1843. India. No compensation was made for the freeing of slaves. The Law simply refused to recognise the status of a slave as legal.

From time immemorial, slavery had existed in the country. There were very many slaves in India in 1843.

State Lotteries, the proceeds of which had been devoted to local improvements, were abolished.

Lord Ellenborough was now recalled. 1844.
Though qualified sufficiently for his office, he was very hasty in his decision, too arrogant in dealing with the Directors, contemptuous towards the Civil Service, aggressive in his policy and too fond of pompous display.

LORD HARDINGE.

Lord Hardinge was 59 years of age when 1844-
he came out to India but he was still very 1848.
energetic and quite fit to assume high command. He had distinguished himself as a soldier in the Peninsular War and at Waterloo. In civil life he had been a member of Parliament for 20 years and had acted as Secretary for War.

Almost all his attention had to be given to the struggle with the Sikhs. But he found time to plan the Indian Railway System of the future, to hasten on the construction of the Ganges canal, to abolish octroi duties i. e., taxes on town imports ; to lessen the salt duty and improve free trade. He^s

employed Indians in Government service and made Sunday, a Government holiday in India. The beautiful Taj Mahal at Agra was restored by his order ; he sought to preserve ancient monuments elsewhere in India. Calcutta was given a Municipal council.

Great humaneness was shown by him, in putting down infanticide and suttee in Indian States and human sacrifices prevalent in the hilly districts of Orissa. Though strongly wishing to carry out a policy of peace, he was drawn into war. After the First Sikh War, he was too hasty in reducing the army ; this embarrassed his successor in office. On leaving India, he re-organised the army system at home, was made Field-Marshal, and died in 1856.

CHAPTER XX.

THE SIKHS.

THEIR
FOUNDER

The Sikhs were a religious sect founded towards the close of the fifteenth century in Hindustan. Their founder was a Hindu named Nanak Shah, born near Lahore. Nanak, in his preaching, tried to reconcile the Hindu with the Mohamedan religion. He called on Hindus to do away with idol worship and caste distinction and to believe in the existence of only one God. He asked Mohamedans to avoid offending Hindus by the killing of cows and to practise religious toleration. In short, he taught devotion to God and universal toleration and love towards all men. Those who followed him were called Sikhs or "devoted learners." He was called the "Guru" or spiritual leader. He died in 1539. His teaching is contained in the sacred book of the Sikhs called the Adhari-Granth.

1849-
1806.

1469.
1490.

1539.

THEIR EARLY
HISTORY.

In 1606 the Moguls persecuted them and killed Arjun, their fifth Guru. Up to then the Sikhs had been a peaceful people, but this cruel persecution drove them to arms. Under Har Govind, son of the murdered Guru, terrible revenge was taken. They formed themselves into bands of soldiers and grew formidable. 1606-1708.

Govind Singh, was only eleven years of age when Aurangzeb put his father Tegh Bahadur, the ninth Guru, to death. Govind was the last of the Sikh Gurus but he formed and carried out the idea of gathering the scattered Sikhs into a military and religious confederacy. 1664-1708.

THE KHALSA.

He abolished caste distinction and admitted to his creed all classes of Hindus. He gave all equal privileges and bound them into a military brotherhood. He required of them always to carry arms, to wear a blue dress and to allow their beard and hair to grow. Thus was formed the Khalsa or Sikh Brotherhood. Its Government was carried on through village committees and councils, presided over by chiefs. It was divided into twelve misls or sections, each under its own chief. The Sikhs thus became a political power. The word Khalsa means "the saved or liberated." Later on, it was the name given to the Council of State. 1847.

In 1708, the Sikhs were defeated at Cham-
 kour by the Moguls under Bahadur Shah. 1708.
 Guru Govind was murdered by an Afghan at 1760.
 Nandair in the Deccan. On the death of
 Guru Govind, Banda, his great friend, became
 the Sikh military leader. He attacked the
 Moguls in Sarhind and in other places in
 the Punjab. 1712.

But he was defeated, captured and execut- 1716.
 ed by Farruksiyar. The Sikhs were now
 persecuted and broken up. The few that
 escaped from between the Sutlej and the
 Jumna took refuge in the North-East of the
 Punjab. There the Sikhs lived, fighting
 many a battle against the Afghans. They 1760-
 gradually grew in power and recovered 1780.
 Lahore and Sarhind but were no longer
 united. The growth of this Hindu power
 in the North-West was most serviceable to
 the British power during the 18th century.
 It prevented any permanent invasion of a
 power from Central Asia; it cut off Mogul
 contact with such a power; it set bounds to
 the Maratha encroachment towards the
 north; it preserved tranquillity on the
 northern limits of British territory when the
 British were critically engaged with Mysore
 and the Marathas.

RANJIT SINGH.

1780-
1839.

Ranjit Singh, the most powerful of the Sikh chiefs in the 19th century, was by birth the head of the twelve Sikh sections. In 1739 he helped Zaman Shah of Kabul to invade the Punjab. Zaman Shah made him Governor of the Punjab. From that point of vantage, he made himself master of the greater part of the Punjab as far as the Sutlej. He signed the Treaty of Amritsar with the British under Lord Minto and became a fast ally. On account of Russia intriguing with the Afghans, Lord Bentinck, formed a treaty of mutual assistance with Ranjit Singh. When the dispute arose between Shah Shuja and Dost Mohamed about the Afghan throne, Ranjit Singh overran Kashmir and took Peshawar. He joined forces with the British in the First Afghan War.

LORD
BENTINCK.
GOV.

On the death of Ranjit Singh, his state fell into disorder. Ranjit's two sons were murdered. Four rivals claimed the throne. Dhulip Singh, a child five years old and the illegitimate son of Ranjit Singh, was with British help proclaimed Maharaja. But all authority was in the hands of the committees which formed the Council of State or the Khalsa. Under Ranjit Singh, the army had never known defeat and now did not want

1739.

1809.

1833.

1839.

1845.

1839.

LORD
HARDINGE
GOV.-GEN.

to acknowledge the Council of State. They wanted more pay and, as the First Afghan War had led them to think they could overthrow the British, they forced the Council of State to allow them to cross the Sutlej and attack British territory. Fearing this inroad, Lord Hardinge had previously mobilised his army on the Sutlej.

THE FIRST SIKH WAR.

CAUSES. Its causes are as above, beginning from 1845-1846.
“on the death of Ranjit Singh.....territory.”

CONTEST. The Sikhs were defeated by Sir Hugh Gough and Lord Hardinge at Mudki and at Ferozeshah. Again at Alwal, in 1846 by Sir H. Smith and finally at Sobraon by all three British generals. Throughout, the fighting was very severe. The Sikhs now made peace. 1845.

RESULT. THE TREATY OF LAHORE :—The Sikhs 1846.
army was to be reduced and the guns used in the war to be given up; the country between the Sutlej and the Bias was annexed and the Hazara district in the north was retained; a British Resident was to control the State during Dhulip Singh's minority; Gulab Singh, an upstart chief, was allowed to keep Jammu and to occupy Kashmir, on payment of seventy-five lakhs of rupees.

THE SECOND SIKH WAR.

LORD DALHOUSIE GOV.-GEN.	<p>Mulraj, Governor of Multan, refused to pay the eighteen lakhs remaining as fee due to the British Government, for his succession to the governorship of Multan. A Sikh named Sardar Khan Singh was appointed in his place. Sardar Khan Singh with Mr. Vans Agnew, a Civil Servant, and Lieutenant Anderson went to Multan to depose Mulraj; but he murdered both officers, seized Multan and declared war.</p>	1848- 1849.
CAUSES.		
CONTEST.	<p>Mulraj was defeated at Kinari and Saddosam and at Ramnagar. Multan was taken by General Whish. The hard battle of Chillianwalla was won by Lord Gough and also the decisive battle of Gujrat near the Chenab River.</p>	1848. 1849. 1849.
RESULT.	<p>The Punjab was annexed. Dhulip Singh left for England on a pension of five lakhs a year. Mulraj was imprisoned for life. The Sikhs were disarmed. The country was administered by a British Commission instead of the Khalsa.</p>	

CHAPTER XXI.

The Acquisition completed.

1848-
1858.

LORD DALHOUSIE.

Lord Dalhousie was a member of Parliament and was on the ministry as President of the Board of Trade. He was a very able man of business. Though only 36 years old when appointed Governor-General, he was enfeebled in health and during his term of office suffered acutely but, with great strength of will, did work of the highest quality. His was a masterful character and was ill-fitted to work easily with colleagues in office. He earnestly strove to do what he considered was the right thing : was intensely practical and methodical, but over keen on efficiency and too autocratic.

EVENTS.

A. REFORMS :—Lord Dalhousie was feverishly energetic in supervising and improving every department of the administration. He made the work of the Supreme

Government less cumbersome by abolishing out-of-date procedures. The duties of the Governor-General in Council were lessened by appointing a Lieutenant-Governor over Bengal. The Public Work Department was established.

He completed the Ganges canal, the longest in the world, and many other works of irrigation. The first Railway was opened from Bombay to Thana; the Postal Department was founded and the telegraph introduced. Vernacular schools were opened in all districts and education placed under the control of European Directors of Public Instruction. 1854.

Having laid the foundation of the modern system of Government in India by abolishing useless traditions of the Company, he created state departments for each branch of work in the administration.

B. Though prompted by the best of motives, his policy of annexation and his applying the Law of Lapse, carried out, as they were, with startling rapidity, produced wide and deep unrest.

The result of the 2nd Sikh War placed the Punjab in the hands of the British. As the Sikh administration of that province had failed twice, it was annexed and Dhulip Singh of Lahore was pensioned. 1849.

The following were also annexed for various reasons :—A portion of Sikkim as a punishment for the Raja's ill-treatment of two British Officials : Cambhalpur, south-west of Bengal as a legacy left by the will of the Raja : Berar owing to the Nizam not being able to pay 50 lakhs for the maintenance of a subsidiary force ; Oudh through misrule. Dalhousie was against taking this step but was overruled by the Board of Control.

1850.

1853.

1857.

Outside India, the Second Burmese War led to the annexation of Fegu.

1853.

LAW OF LAPSE.

Another form of annexation was the Law of Lapse. This meant that if the ruler of a dependent State died leaving no natural heir to the State, his State became the possession of the British Government, unless he had adopted a son with the permission of the British power. In no case was the private estate of the Raja confiscated.

His reasons for applying this Law of Lapse were :—*a.* The Marquess of Wellesley's system of subsidiary alliance with Indian States was never meant to be a permanent condition but only a stage in the development of the relationship between the British Government and the Protected States. *b.* Many of the princes in such states neglected and misruled their possessions. *c.* As far

back as 1834, the Directors decided that the recognition of an adoption as securing the succession to the Raj, was an indulgence and that such indulgence should be the exception and not the rule. In 1841 the Directors declared that, while respecting all existing claims of right, no just and honourable accession of territory should be abandoned. In 1849 the Directors aimed at putting into practice the general law and custom of India that a dependent principality could not pass to an adopted son without the consent of the paramount power. Lord Dalhousie, who, like the Marquess of Wellesley, was convinced that India would best prosper if under the control of a central governing power such as the British, applied the Law of Lapse not as a thing of his own finding, but as a principle recognised in India and approved of by the Directors. In applying the Law of Lapse, Dalhousie, was, therefore, within what he considered his political rights. Whether it was expedient to apply it or no, depended on each case. What is certain is, that he did apply it too often and thereby caused profound resentment.

With the approval of the Directors eight states were thus annexed, the chief being Satara 1849, Jhansi 1853, and Nagpur in 1854.

By the annexation of the Punjab, of a part of Sikkim, of Cambhalpur, of Berar and of Oudh, and by applying the law of Lapse to Satara, Jhansi and Nagpur, Lord Dalhousie brought the acquisition of India by the British to its close. Henceforward British campaigns were outside and around India. The consolidation of British rule over India affected not only neighbouring-realms but the whole political system of Asia.

LORD CANNING.

1856-
1862.

Lord Canning, the son of the Prime Minister in 1827, had had much political experience in Parliament before his arrival in India. As Postmaster-General he had proved himself an able administrator.

On his arrival the country seemed at peace. Neither he nor Dalhousie read the signs rightly. Neither foresaw the storm of mutiny that broke out so soon. Fortunately, Canning was a man "who even in the greatest peril never allowed his judgment to be savaged by passion or his fine sense of honour and justice to be tarnished by a feeling of revenge." His character influenced his policy and enabled him to temper severe punishment with kindness in dealing with the mutineers and to control the extreme measures proposed against them by the British population.

EVENTS.

A. TROUBLE WITH PERSIA :—Persia 1856-1857.
 threatened Afghanistan and insulted British subjects within its own territory. Sir James Outram was sent to the Persian Gulf and took Bushirc, defeated the Persians at Kushab and seized Mohamcrah. A treaty was then signed by which the Persians gave up all claim to Herat, withdrew from Afghanistan, paid a war indemnity and agreed to protect British trade.

ITS CAUSES.

B. THE MUTINY :—Its causes were political: Dalhousie's policy of annexation wherever possible and his vigorous application of the Law of Lapse, had produced a sense of insecurity among the ruling Princes and Chiefs and a feeling of profound distrust and resentment among all classes. The ordinary man knew nothing of the legal grounds upon which Dalhousie stood; what he saw was that one state after another was taken over by the British and that, too, in rapid succession; the effect was distressing. Moreover, revenue settlements with the Zemindars had lessened their claims to rule as petty autocrats and weakened their authority. General internal peace had the natural result of disconcerting lawless characters, who looked upon predatory warfare as a trade. The annexation of Oudh caused

widespread unemployment, especially among the military caste.

RELIGIOUS :—The introduction of railways, the telegraph, the increase of missionary activity supported by powerful officials especially in the Punjab, led to the rumour that these forces of civilisation were but steps towards christianising India. Laws allowing the re-marriage of widows strengthened the rumour.

MILITARY :—The military classes were offended by a decree demanding the willingness of recruits to serve over sea if called upon. An ill-considered order made the Sepoys bite the end of the cartridges in use for the new Enfield Rifle. That the fat of cows had really been used at Woolwich in greasing the cartridges was, at first, not known to the authorities in India. This was early discovered by the Sepoys. They came to believe that pig's fat had also been applied. No sooner the Government realised the serious blunder than the order was cancelled. But it was too late. Every Sepoy believed that the order had been issued for the express purpose of making them lose caste and of forcing them to become Christians.

ITS
BEGINNING.

Fury spread through the army. The ^{March 29th,} 1857. fire of rebellion broke out at Barrackpore. A Brahmin sepoy of the 34th North Infantry cut the Adjutant down on the parade ground before the assembled regiment. But for one Mohamedan who ran up to protect the officer, the regiment stood still. Punishment followed. That night much of Barrackpore was burnt down. It was the beginning of a terrible page in Indian History.

GENERAL
STATE.

England had just come out of the Crimean War and was occupied in conflict with Persia and China. Hence the British garrison in India had been greatly lessened. Discipline among the Indian troops was lax. Fortunately, all India did not rise. The Sikhs in the Punjab stood loyal. So, too, did most of the Rajput Chiefs and the Nizam of Haidarabad. Of the Maratha leaders, Holkar Scindia and the Gaekwar remained true. In the Madras and Bombay Presidencies, the Indian troops not only continued loyal but rendered help.

Those who led the mutiny had no united goal in view.

ITS LEADERS.

Bahadur Shah, the ex-Mogul ruler of Delhi, was joined by the Bengal Sepoys and aimed at restoring the Mogul dynasty. Most of his men were Hindus and had no great reason

to restore Mogul Rule. Nana Sahib, the ex-Peshwa and adopted son of Baji Rao, who had been deposed in 1852, sought to restore Maratha supremacy. He was helped by Tantia Topi, the Rajput general of Gwalior. The Rani of Jhansi, who had been pensioned in 1853, fought for her own position.

ITS COURSE. During the mutiny the fighting centred north of the Narbada and chiefly in the province of Oudh.

From Barrackpore, the mutiny spread rapidly to Meerut and Delhi. Both these places were captured and all Europeans massacred. Cawnpore surrendered and massacre again resulted. Lucknow held out. 1857.

Generals Havelock and O'Neill regained Cawnpore. Sir John Lawrence took Delhi and made Bahadur Shah a prisoner and had him deported to Rangoon. Tantia Topi and Nana Sahib vigorously assailed Cawnpore but were beaten off by Sir Colin Campbell, who next relieved Lucknow.

Sir Hugh Rose pursued the Rani of Jhansi, Tantia Topi and Nana Sahib into the Central Provinces. The Rani, attired in male costume, was killed fighting at the head of her troops. Tantia Topi fled but was caught and executed. Nana Sahib alone escaped and probably died in Nepal. 1858

* Thus ended the rebellion which, if short, was intense and fearful in its details.

RESULT

More good than evil came of the Mutiny. British valour had been tested and served to strengthen its position where it had weakened and to deepen loyalty where that had not been shaken.

The dual government of the Crown and the Board of Control came to an end. The whole government of India was transferred to the Crown. Lord Canning held a durbar at Allahabad on November 1, 1858, and read Queen Victoria's Proclamation. This made known the transfer of the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. It pledged the British Government to neutrality in matters of religion and of ancient rights, usages and customs. It confirmed all existing dignities and treaties. It pardoned all rebels, except proven murderers of the British civil population, and bound itself to an equal obligation of duty towards all British subjects in India.

At the same time, the actual transference of the Company's power to the Crown was effected by the Act for the Better Government of India. By this Act, a Secretary of State was appointed, with a council to carry on the business of India in Britain; the

Secretary of State in Council had to control the Indian Revenue and to place the Indian Budget annually before Parliament : all the power and possession of the Company were made over to the Crown ; all the forces, servants and patronage of the Company, thereby came under the Crown.

The Queen's Proclamation appointed Lord Canning the first Viceroy and Governor-General of India. Under him a more liberal and enlightened administration began.

CHAPTER XXII.

Administration under the Company.

ITS
CONSTITU-
TION.

The Company, as a trading body, had its affairs, managed in England by a Court of Proprietors and a Board of Directors. In India, its officials came under the Board of Directors. The Court of Proprietors was represented by the more wealthy shareholders. They met 4 times a year and received and discussed the Directors' Report. They elected and dismissed Directors. The Board of Directors consisted of 64 stockholders. 1600-1774.

In India, the Company's possessions were divided into the Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay areas. Each area was under a President. The government of each area or presidency was carried on by the President and a council; they had supreme civil and

criminal jurisdiction over their officials and could exercise martial law over their land and sea-forces.

The Company's officials were divided into four grades : writers, factors, senior and junior merchants. From the senior merchants, the members of the Governor's Council were chosen.

ITS
PRIVILEGES.

Queen Elizabeth's Charter of 1600 gave the Company monopoly of trade with the East for fifteen years. James I extended the Charter in perpetuity. Charles II added the right of coining money and the exercise of jurisdiction over British subjects in India. The coinage of the Company bore the name and titles of Indian rulers. Only in 1835 was a new coinage with European devices introduced.

ITS
GOVERNMENT.
CLIVE.

The Company soon had its British rivals. All happily agreed to form a United Company. When Bengal, Bihar, and Northern Orissa were acquired, the grant of the Diwani and the system of Double Government were the beginning of the Company's rule in India. But they were soon abolished. The real basis of the Company's administration of India lies in the Regulating Act. This was further completed and improved by Pitt's India Bill. Both the Act and the Bill gave

WARREN
HASTINGS.

supreme control in India to the Governor-General in Council. Bombay and Madras each had its own but dependent Governor and Council. The Bill, however, did away with the Board of Proprietors and set up a Board of Control instead. In India, it restricted the powers of the Directors to commercial matters. It gave the Governor-General more independent power than the Act had done but it took political matters out of the hands of the Company. Hitherto, the latter had been a private trading body but, by the Bill, it was brought under some control of Parliament. With few changes, Pitt's India Bill remained in force till 1858.

Gradually the control developed. Parliamentary legislation in renewing the Company's Charter deprived it of its monopoly of trade with India but left it that with China. 1813. At the next renewal of Charter, however, the monopoly of trade with China was withdrawn. This Charter gave the Governor-General of Bengal the title of Governor-General of India and a Lieutenant-Governor was appointed over Bengal. 1833. The Governor General was empowered to make Laws which, if approved of by Parliament, became Acts of Parliament. Hitherto the Company had only issued Regulations. Henceforward the Company was no longer merely a

trading body but became an administrative body under Parliament. India was no longer its possession but a trust held by the Company for the Crown.

At the last renewal of the Charter, Parliament reduced the number of Directors from twenty-four to eighteen, six of whom were to be nominated by the Crown. This deprived the Company of its right of patronage. Lord Dalhousie also did away with many cumbrous traditions of the Company and, by forming various departments to deal with the various branches in the administration of the State, laid the foundation of the present departmental system in India. 1853.

From 1774-1853 Parliament had gradually encroached upon the rights and privileges of the Company and transferred the management of its most important affairs to Parliament. It transformed the Company from a private trading body into a national one. This was achieved by giving the Governor-General in India more and more of power, by lessening that of the Board of Control in England.

LORD
CANNING.

When, therefore, the "Act for the better government of India" was passed and brought India under the Crown altogether, 1858.

the change was no sudden wrench but had been steadily prepared.

The "Act for the better government of India" left unchanged the essential principles of Pitt's India Bill. The Board of Control and the Board of Directors were done away with and their place taken by the Secretary of State for India and his Council. He has to lay the India Budget annually before Parliament. In India, the Governor-General was called the Viceroy but no change was made in the system of Government.

ITS
JUDICIAL
SYSTEM.

At the outset, the Company had its own 1600-
tribunals for the trial of its own European 1773.
officials and servants. Next came its juris-
diction over all European residents in the
three Presidencies. Under Warren Hastings,
the British Collectors of Revenue in the
districts were made Presidents of the Com-
pany's civil and criminal courts in their 1772.
districts. He established two courts of
appeal, one civil and one criminal, in Cal-
cutta. The Governor presided over the civil
and an Indian judge over the criminal.
Skilled Hindu and Mohamedan lawyers
helped the British judges in both courts. A 1773.
simple code of Hindu and Mohamedan Law
was drawn up. The Regulating Act did 1784.
not do away with the Courts of the Company.

WARREN
HASTINGS.

It established a Supreme Court of Justice at Calcutta with jurisdiction over all the Company's possessions. Pitt's India Bill more clearly laid down the powers of the Supreme Court.

LORD
BENTINCK.

Lord Bentinck improved the working of the courts. In them vernaculars replaced Persian as the official language. Indians were appointed to judicial posts. Lord Macaulay acted as the first Law member of the Governor's Council. He devised a system upon which the actual Penal Code and the Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure rest. 1833.

LORD
CANNI

When the Company was transferred to the Crown, its courts and the Supreme Court were abolished and High Courts, chartered by royal warrant, were introduced. 1858.

EDUCA-
TIONAL.

Warren Hastings opened a college at Calcutta for Mohamedans. In 1791 Lord Cornwallis founded a Sanscrit one for Hindus at Benares. Government Schools were established by Lord Bentinck who, acting on the advice of Lord Macaulay, made English the medium of Western education in India. 1782. 1833.

Under Lord Dalhousie, the foundation of the present educational system was laid. He was much guided by Sir Charles Wood, President of the Board of Control. Educa- 1854.

tional Departments under the supervision of European Directors were formed. In all provinces, schools and colleges under Government were opened. Universities at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta were founded on the model of the London University. 1857.

REVENUE
SYSTEM.

When Bengal, Bihar and Orissa became British acquisitions, the Diwani gave the British the right to collect the revenue. Indians under the control of British officials did the collecting. Todar Mal's system was acted upon. This system led to the formation of the Zemindar class. Warren Hastings did away with it and introduced 1772 his system of farming out lands on a lease of five years. He also abolished the Diwani. A Revenue Board was set up which consisted of British officials who had to collect the Revenue. This system exists in a modified form, where neither the Zemindar nor Ryotwari Systems prevail.

WARREN
HASTINGS.

Broadly speaking, these two Systems were and are generally acknowledged. The Zemindari System lay in the payment of revenue to the Zemindar or land-owner by the cultivator or tenant who, however, did not own the land. The Company claimed a share in the revenue paid in. In the Permanent Revenue Settlement, which did 1793.

LORD
CORNWALLIS.

away with the system of farming out land on lease introduced by Warren Hastings, this share was fixed for ever. But in what are now the United Provinces, the Central Provinces and in the Punjab, the share was and is fixed anew every twenty or thirty years.

The Ryotwari System prevailed in the South, and, later on, was applied to the Bombay Presidency and to the Province of Agra. The payment of revenue by the cultivator was and is made to Tahsildar, who sends it on directly to the ruling power whose agent he is. The cultivator owns the land. He pays in proportion to the productiveness of his property. This payment has steadily been reduced. The modern system dates back to 1855.



CHAPTER XXIII.

THE BURMESE WARS.

In 1753 Alompra, a Burmese adventurer, 1753.
founded a dynasty at Ava and extended his
conquests as far as Bassein. His son con-
quered Arakan, Martaban and Tenasserim.

THE FIRST BURMESE WAR.

LORD
AMHERST
GOV.-GEN

CAUSES

In 1818 the Burmese Government demand- 1823-
ed from the Marquess of Hastings the sur- 1826.
render of Eastern Bengal, including Dacca
and Murshidabad, as part of the ancient
kingdom of Arakan which they had lately
conquered. This was ignored and, in 1823,
the Burmese forcibly occupied Sharpuri, an 1823.
island belonging to the East India Company,
but restored it, however, in 1824.

1824.

Maha Bandula, the Burmese general
overran Assam and Manipur and came up to
the British Frontier. He captured a British
outpost and was ordered by his king to bring
the Governor-General in golden chains to
Ava. Lord Amherst declared war.

CONTEST. Sir A. Campbell, coming from Madras, 1825. captured Rangoon and Assam. Supplies now failed him. He retired on Rangoon. A British detachment was sent up at Ramu. Soon afterwards the British took Donabu, 1826. Prome and Arakan and won decisively at Paghan.

RESULT. THE TREATY OF YENDABU :— Assam, Arakan and Tenasserim were ceded to the British. 1826. An indemnity of a crore of rupees was to be paid. A British Resident had to stay at Yendabu.

THE 2ND BURMESE WAR. 1852-1853.

LORD DALHOUSIE, GOV.-GEN. The British merchants at Rangoon were ill-treated by Burmese officials. Redress 1852-1853.
CAUSES, was refused.

CONTEST, The province of Pegu was attacked from sea and on land Rangoon, Martaban, Prome and Bassein were taken.

RESULT. Pegu was annexed. A chief Commissioner was appointed over British Burma. 1853.

THE 3RD BURMESE WAR. 1885-1886.

LORD DUFFERIN, GOV.-GEN. King Theebaw of Upper Burma put himself under French protection and gave France special consular and trading privileges and exacted an enormous fine on the Bombay Burma Trading Company. 1885-1886.
CAUSES,

He ill-treated other British traders and ruled very badly over his people. The Viceroy determined to keep France out of Burma ; he ordered Theebaw to receive a British Resident at Mandalay, to redress the complaints made by British traders, and to restore order in the country. An evasive answer was returned.

RESULT. Theebaw was deposed and sent as a State 1886.
prisoner to Ratnagiri on the Bombay coast.
Upper Burma was annexed. For the next
five years desultory warfare was carried on.
Gradually complete order was restored. 1917.
Theebaw died at Ratnagiri.

FIFTH SECTION.

INDIA UNDER THE VICEROYALTY

1858 - 1923.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Viceroy of the Twentieth Century.

LORD CANNING.

1858-
1862.

During the next fifty years, there were ten Viceroy. The first of these was Lord Canning, who came into office after the Mutiny and held it for four years.

Before mentioning the reforms that were carried out during those years, it must be recorded that, though beset with the difficulties of the Indian Mutiny, he founded the three Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. Indian graduates began that contact with Western Culture which, growing as the century wore on, brought India into touch with the outer world in the political, social, intellectual and ethical realms of thought. Through the foundation of the Universities, East and West have been brought together and cannot separate. This educational reform is perhaps the greatest

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THE
UNIVERSITIES.

part of the Wahabis, an Afghan tribe, led to the Sitana Expedition. With difficulty a satisfactory conclusion was brought about. 1863.

SIR JOHN LAWRENCE.

Sir John Lawrence, who had rendered great service in the Punjab and was well acquainted with frontier politics, was appointed Viceroy. He followed a policy of peace. Railways, the telegraph and irrigation were increased; the Postal rates were lowered; the cotton trade of India was greatly improved. Much was done to relieve the terrible famine in Orissa. 1863-1869. 1866.

BHUTAN.

There was some slight trouble in Bhutan. The Bhutanese had ceased to pay tribute and raided British territory and kidnapped Mr. Ashley Eden, the British envoy. Bhutan had to cede a strip of its territory. In Afghanistan, the throne was disputed when Dost Mohamed died. 1863.

Sir John Lawrence refused to interfere. He only declared he would recognise the successful claimant. This proved to be Sher Ali. His attitude is known as one of "masterly inactivity"; it was inexpensive and cautious but, to the Afghan, it seemed selfish. It made relations with the Amir more difficult,

LORD MAYO.

Lord Mayo worked hard at all administrative problems. His charming personality won the affection of the Indian Princes, who considered him an ideal ruler.

1869-
1872.

EVENTS.

Up to this time, the Central Government had kept all money matters under its own control. Lord Mayo made each province responsible for economy in its administration and for its own finance. He thus lessened the many appeals for grants. He favoured the system of State railways. A census of Bengal was taken for the first time. A college for the sons of chiefs and nobles was opened at Ajmere. The unpleasant impression produced on the Amir of Afghanistan by Sir John Lawrence's policy was removed and Sher Ali became friendly again. The Duke of Edinburgh, Queen Victoria's second son, visited India. This was intended to secure closer relationship between the Sovereign House and the Indian Princes and people.

Lord Mayo improved the administration of jails. He inspected the penal settlement of the Andaman Islands and, when there, was stabbed to death by an Afghan whom he had sentenced to servitude for life.

LORD NORTHBROOK.

Lord Northbrook had little personal charm of manner and assumed the cold attitude of Sir John Lawrence towards Sher Ali. The latter, fearing Russian aggression, had asked Lord Northbrook for an alliance but was refused on the principle of not interfering in his affairs.

In Baroda, the Gaekwar, Mulhar Rao, was ruling badly and had been threatened with deposition. Col. Phayre, the Resident, died shortly after of poisoning. The Gaekwar was blamed and deposed. Sayaji Rao, a young and distant relative, was made ruler.

The Prince of Wales, afterwards Edward VII, visited India officially.

Lord Northbrook encouraged local self-government, appointed Indians to high offices, and reduced several import duties and taxes.

LORD LYTTON.

EVENTS. Lord Lytton, in consequence of the great famine that spread all over India in 1876, drew up a scheme of relief. The scheme demanded that inland trade in grain should be free of all hindrance; that there should be a systematic planning and execution of relief works on a large scale and more building of

special railways and canals. This policy of relief is the basis of the present system in cases of famine.

THE ROYAL
TITLES ACT.

Queen Victoria was solemnly proclaimed **1877.**
Empress of India. The title showed her relationship to the rulers of Indian States. Up to then, these had been allies of the paramount power in India; they now became subjects of the Crown and parts, not of British India, but of the British Empire. Broadly speaking, the rulers and inhabitants of an Indian State are aliens as regards British India but British subjects as regards foreign powers and the Empire.

Lord Lytton extended the decentralising of the financial system begun by his predecessor. The success of Russia against Turkey, then politically supported by Great Britain, led to seditious articles in India against the British Raj, published in the Vernacular Press. To stop further sedition, the Vernacular Press Act was passed requiring securities from the Vernacular Press.

2ND AFGHAN
WAR.
PAGE 328.

War broke out against Afghanistan but **1878.**
Lord Lytton resigned before it ended.

LORD RIPON.

EVENTS.

Lord Ripon brought the 2nd Afghan War **1880-1884.**
to a successful close. Khelat came under British control and the occupation of Quetta

secured the use of the Bolan Pass and commanded Kandahar. This meant that a moderate use of military force would suffice to occupy important points in Afghanistan on the Indian side of the Hindu Kush Range. Russia was foiled in her attempt to obtain political control over Afghanistan.

REFORMS.

Mysore was restored to the Maharaja 1881.
The State had been administered by the British since 1831. The Vernacular Press Act was repealed. The Local Self Government Act gave the people a greater share in managing their own civic affairs. By it Municipal Boards were formed to train citizens in political and civil administration. Certain duties on cotton were abolished 1882.

THE ILBERT BILL.

The Ilbert Bill named after the legal member of the Council who introduced it proposed to confer on Indian Judges authority to try European British subjects. The Bill was strongly opposed by the European population and strongly supported by educated Indians. Much racial feeling was aroused. Finally the Bill was modified in that Europeans could always claim the right to have a jury on which Europeans were in the majority 1883.

Lord Ripon was not brilliant but he was a steady, experienced official, with a very fair

mind. No British ruler of India ever won the sympathy of its people as he did. On his way home, his journey from Simla to Bombay was a triumphal procession.

LORD DUFFERIN.

Lord Dufferin, both in Syria and in Turkey, had learned the art of dealing with Asiatic rulers and officials. At Petrograd he had represented the interests of England on the Eastern Question and, in Egypt, he had reformed and reconstructed the whole administration. 1884-
1888.

No Viceroy so far had been better prepared for work in India. He was a great diplomatist and statesman: a man of tact and versatility, of rare judgment and with a very tenacious will.

EVENTS.

A. The Indian National Congress was started. Its aim was to help Government to know the wishes of Indians and the means of fulfilling them. It is a kind of unofficial Parliament made up of educated prominent Indians from all parts of the country. For many years the Congress continued to be the most representative body in India. In 1907 a break occurred between the more moderate and the more extreme partisans of Reform. Till 1916, the latter held aloof. Then they re-entered Congress and, under

THE INDIAN
NATIONAL
CONGRESS.

the leadership of Tilak, grew all powerful, finally driving the Moderates to leave the Congress in 1919. The Congress then came under the control of Gandhi and, rapidly changing its original character, gave its influence to non-Co-operation. It no longer stands for the connection of India with the British Empire. As a representative body, it is still influential.

PANJDEH.

B. The Russians had advanced steadily towards Afghanistan in extending their territory. General Komarov took Panjdeh, an Afghan village between Herat and Merv; a storm of indignation arose in India, Afghanistan and Great Britain. War threatened. But the diplomatic tact of Lord Dufferin 1885 prevented this. He interviewed the Amir Abdur Rahman at Rawalpindi: a combined Russian and Afghan Commission was appointed. Panjdeh was given to Russia. A boundary line was laid down and accepted by both parties. The Amir was pleased at this success of diplomacy. For he wanted, at any cost, to keep both the Russians and British out of his territory. A Durbar was held in his honour at Rawalpindi. By the Treaty of Rawalpindi, Lord Dufferin, at the wish of the Amir, agreed to help him with money and material in a defensive war. The Amir did not want men.

RAWALPINDI TREATY.

UPPER BURMA. c. Burmese intrigue with France and ill-treatment of British subjects in Burma led to war and ended in the annexation of Upper Burma. 1886.

D. Rent Acts were passed to better the position of the tenant in Bengal, Oudh and the Punjab.

LORD LANSDOWNE.

Lord Lansdowne had been under-Secretary for War and Governor-General of Canada before his arrival in India. 1888-1894.

EVENTS. REFORMS :—A. He improved the frontier defence. The southern and eastern frontiers of Afghanistan were settled. A mission to the Amir decided which of the tribes dwelling in the districts between British and Afghan territories should come under the political influence of each country. This is known as the "sphere of influence policy." It controlled the foreign relations of the tribes without interfering in their internal affairs.

FRONTIER DEFENCE. THE CURRENCY. B. The value of the rupee needed steady-ing. It had slowly fallen in value from 2sh. 6d. to less than a shilling. India found it hard to pay her debts in countries which had a gold currency. So the free coinage of silver was suspended and the Government undertook to exchange gold for silver at the rate of 15 rupees for a sovereign. This fixed the value of the rupee at 16d. 1893.

SIKKIM.

c. Owing to difficulties in settling the boundary line on the north-east frontier, hostilities resulted against Tibet. The Raja of Sikkim came under British protection.

THE INDIAN
COUNCILS ACT.

d. The Indian Councils Act was passed, 1892. This raised the number of non-officials and Indians in the Legislative Assemblies. Public bodies, like Municipalities, were empowered to elect their representatives to Provincial Councils and these representatives could choose their representative on the Imperial Council. Members of the Supreme and Provincial Councils were invited to discuss, under certain restrictions, the financial proposals of the Government. On other matters placed before them by the Government, their opinion was invited.

LORD ELGIN II.

During his term of office frontier disputes were settled. The boundary separating British Burma from Siam and China was agreed upon. Next the limits of Russian and British political spheres of influence in the Pamirs beyond Kashmir were prescribed. Finally two Afghan campaigns, one in the Chitral and the other in the Tirah, were carried on. The offending tribesmen were punished but not subdued. Chitral was permanently occupied.

1894-

1899.

1895-

1898.

CHAPTER XXV.

Viceroy of our Times.

LORD CURZON.

Lord Curzon had not only deeply studied the problems of but had travelled widely in Persia, the Far East, and in India before he was appointed Viceroy. He had acquired unrivalled knowledge, which fitted him for manifold work. In India he began to deal thoroughly with every department of administration. He wanted reform. But being, like Dalhousie, energetic and masterful, he perhaps went too fast. In India, the feverish energy of Dalhousie awoke mutinous feelings; the East detests hustling: hence, Lord Curzon, by the incessant change he introduced, may have accelerated the outbreak of unrest and political crime that followed after his resignation. Almost every administrative change that he made, has, however, shown itself to be an improvement.

1899-
1905.

'If his pace was too fast and his improvements too many', his place among the Viceroy's will, nevertheless, be prominent. On his return to England, he was created Earl of Keddleston and led the Conservative Party in the House of Lords. During the Great War he was a prominent member of the War Cabinet and, after the War, acted under the Coalition Government as Minister for Foreign Affairs. He continued in office when, in 1922, the Conservative Party under Mr. Bonar Law came into power, and remained leader of the House of Lords and Minister for Foreign Affairs.

EVENTS.

EXTERNAL AFFAIRS.

FRONTIER POLICY.

A. Lord Curzon aimed at putting a stop to the costly and useless punitive expeditions on the N. W. Frontier: so he withdrew isolated British outposts on the Frontier and secured guards for the passes by levies taken from the local tribesmen.

He formed the N. W. Frontier Province by uniting parts of the Punjab with certain tribal districts. This Province was placed directly under the Central Government of India.

TIBET.

B. INVASION OF TIBET :—The Tibetans were intriguing with Russia and had obstructed trade with India and ignored previous conventions with the British. They made

1903.
1904.

no reply to official enquiries from the Viceroy. A small force was sent into Tibet which took Lhasa. The Tibetans had to pay a small indemnity. The suzerainty of China over Tibet was confirmed by the British Foreign Office. Tibet is now a Republic.

PERSIA.

c. Steps were taken to preserve British influence in the South of Persia and in the Persian Gulf. Russia had secured paramount influence in North Persia. Great Britain secured influence in the South of Persia. Germany won Turkey over and began to build the Berlin-Byzantium-Bagdad Railway. To counteract German influence in Persia, South Persia was peacefully controlled and Koweit occupied. 1904-1907.

INTERNAL
AFFAIRS.

A. FINANCE :—Legislation making gold a legal tender for payment of debts was completed. The limit of exemption from the Income tax was raised from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1000 ; the tax on salt was reduced by half a rupee.

B. PECUNIARY RELIEF :—Irrigation Works and Railways, which served to lessen the rigours of famine, were not bound to pay Government a part of their profits. Measures were taken to protect the peasant in time of famine against rapacious money-

lenders. By the Land Alienation Act, peasants were not allowed to pledge their holdings for debt to money-lenders. Capital was obtained for the peasant as also for the petty tradesman by the Co-operative Societies' Act. Loans could be had from such societies at a low rate of interest. 1904.

c. THE DELHI DURBAR :—Queen Victoria died in 1901 and, when Edward VII succeeded, Lord Curzon held a magnificent Durbar at Delhi. He was much criticised for the pomp displayed on that occasion. 1903.

d. ANTIQUITIES :—An Act to preserve ancient monuments was passed. These monuments and the searching for other historic treasures are entrusted to the Archaeological Department of India.

THE
UNIVERSITIES
ACT.

e. EDUCATION :—The Indian Universities established in 1857 needed reform. After much labour and enquiry, Lord Curzon drew up the Universities Act. It reduced the excessive membership of the Senate, reformed the Syndicates or executive bodies, placed the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges in the hands of Government, and provided for the official inspection of affiliated colleges. But the Act was strongly opposed and had to be dropped. Vested interests were much affected by the Act. Official control was 1904.

objected to. Lord Curzon was unjustly accused of being hostile to the educated classes. The Act made him very unpopular with the higher classes of Indians who claimed educational independence.

BERAR.

F. A treaty existed by which, after all administrative expenses had been paid, the surplus revenue in Berar should be given to the Nizam. But the Nizam rarely got any surplus revenue. Lord Curzon concluded 1903. an agreement with the Nizam by which Berar was leased to the Indian Government in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs and a deposit of 41 lakhs.

PARTITION OF
BENGAL.

G. In 1905 the Lieutenant Governor of Bengal proposed the plan of lightening the burden of government on his shoulders. He had to govern 189,000 square miles with a population of 78 millions. It was impossible to do so efficiently. Lord Curzon divided Bengal into Bengal Proper and Eastern 1905. Bengal; to Eastern Bengal, he added Assam and placed them under a new Lieutenant Governor. This partition gave rise to passionate resentment. The Bengali nation, it was said, had been torn asunder. Lord Curzon was supported by the Secretary of State. However, though excitement had greatly died down and Eastern Bengal and

Assam had already realised the benefits of the partition, King George V at his Durbar in Delhi announced that Bengal would be under a Governor in Council, Bihar and Orissa under a Lieutenant-Governor, and Assam under a Chief-Commissioner. This pleased the people.

KITCHENER.
DISPUTE.

Lord Kitchener, the Commander-in-Chief, claimed that the Commander-in-Chief of India should not only control the executive command in India but should also be the military member or war minister on the Viceroy's Council. Lord Curzon held that the two posts should be filled by different men and that both men should be under the Viceroy's control because thereby the military power would be more under the authority of the civil power. The Home Government was appealed to and agreed with Lord Kitchener's 1905 views. Lord Curzon thereupon resigned.

LORD MINTO.

EVENTS.

Lord Minto had sedition and political reform to mark his term of office. 1905-1910.

A. The victory of Japan in the Russo-Japanese War caused intense excitement throughout Asia. The agitation in India awakened by the Universities Act, the partition of Bengal, and other grievances arising from many administrative changes, was 1905.

SEDITION.

stimulated by the victory of a small Asiatic State over a vast European power. The agitation became a dangerous revolutionary and anarchist conspiracy, directed in India from Bengal and Poona and from secret foreign organisations in Europe and America. The conspiracy sought to destroy British Government by establishing general terrorism. Several officials were murdered. Two bombs were thrown at the Viceroy at Ahmedabad but failed to explode. Seditious writing in the Press caused great mischief. As time went on, the conspiracy developed and spread to the Punjab. Serious attempts to break the loyalty of Indian troops were discovered. Some of the leading conspirators were executed. The ordinary Law was strengthened by the Seditious Meetings Act and by the Summary Justice Act, by the Criminal Law Amendment Act and by the 1907-1908. Press Act.

b. REVENUE :—The Opium trade was 1907. officially stopped though it meant a loss in revenue of about nine crores of rupees, which had to be made good by increased taxation.

POLITICAL
REFORM.

c. Edwards VII's Proclamation declared 1908. that racial distinctions would not hinder access to posts of authority. It deemed that the time had come when the principle of re-

presentative institutions should be prudently extended.

In the Indian Councils Act, these state- 1909.
ments were acted upon. The Legislative Councils were largely increased in membership and, in each Province, elections were so managed that the various communities should be fairly represented.

LORD HARDINGE.

1910-
1916.

Lord Hardinge was a distinguished Foreign office official and grandson of the Governor-General, who defeated the Sikhs in 1816. During the Russo-Japanese War, he was ambassador at Petrograd. When the "Entente Cordiale" was agreed upon, he was present as Foreign Secretary to Edward VII.

EVENTS.

IMPERIAL
VISIT.

A. At the beginning of his term of office, the King Emperor and Queen visited India. 1911.
Their purpose was "to secure a better understanding and a closer union between the Mother Country and her Indian Empire, to break down prejudice, to dispel misapprehension, and to foster sympathy and brotherhood." At Delhi a Coronation Durbar was held. Delhi was made the new capital. This was done to revive the historical connection of the city with past Governments in India and the present. Delhi had been the ancient capital of Hindustan. But, in spite

of the Royal Visit, towards the close of the following year, Lord Hardinge was wounded by a bomb at Delhi.

b. In 1912 the Government of India Act created Legislative Councils for districts under a Chief Commissioner and introduced an Executive Council in the new Lieutenant-Governorship of Bihar and Orissa.

THE GREAT
WAR.

c. On August 4th, England entered the 1914. Great War. This action of England met with a deep manifestation of loyalty and spontaneous service from all parts of India. The King-Emperor, in his message to the Princes and peoples of India, warmly acknowledged their devotion to the Throne. He declared that their practical loyalty in the hour of trial was a noble fulfilment of the assurance they had given him at the Coronation Durbar that the destinies of Great Britain and India were indissolubly linked. Lord Hardinge had to supply troops for France, Egypt, Africa and Mesopotamia.

Sir Beauchamp Duff was Commander-in-chief. At first, the Indian effort in the Mesopotamian Campaign proved successful. General Townshend, after taking Busera, 1915. marched on to Baghdad; but, meeting with larger Turkish forces, he had to retire and surrender at Kut-el-Amara. A better organised

force under General Maude resumed the attack and took Baghdad.

Other successes followed. Mosul was 1917.
occupied. In the meantime, General Allenby
carried on a victorious campaign against
the Turks in Palestine and Syria. The
Turks made peace. 1918.

On the battle fields of France and in the
campaigns carried on in Palestine and East
Africa, Indian troops fought gallantly and
won unstinted praise from the generals,
under whom they served.

SEDITION.

D. In 1914 a party of Hindus from the
Punjab, who had emigrated to Vancouver on
board the "Komagata Maru" and had not
been allowed to land, returned to India.
The Ingress to India Act, which, owing to
the War, gave the Government power to
control all persons entering India, was ap-
plied to the party. They were ordered to
take train at Budge-Budge for the Punjab.
This they violently refused to do. Some
were shot down and the rest were arrested.
Their trial revealed a deep scheme at revolu-
tion called the Ghadr conspiracy. This
knowledge led to the Defence of India 1915.
Realms Act. To try cases of sedition the
Act provided that special tribunals be form-
ed, from whose decision there was no appeal ;

it also allowed Government to intern, without trial, any one suspected of sedition. Thus long and difficult judicial processes were suspended. It was an emergency act to last till six months after the ending of the War. The loyalty of Indians in the Imperial Legislative Council was strikingly shown in the unanimous passing of this Act.

FRONTIER
TROUBLE.

e. The Mahsuds, an Afghan tribe, took to raiding. But they were for a time left alone. A great plot against the British Government fostered by German agents was discovered and foiled. Afghanistan itself was pro-German in feeling but the Amir, Habibullah Khan, remained neutral though his difficulties increased. 1914-1915.

REFORMS.

f. Lord Hardinge was much interested in Education. New Universities were opened. Mysore was allowed its own University. A University for Indian women was begun at Poona. Primary Education was encouraged.

A Royal Commission enquired into the public services of India, the military policy of India, and its financial position. 1912-1913.

At the request of many leading Indians, Lord Hardinge's term of office was extended for a year. He abolished the system of indentured coolie labour which had led to bitter quarrels between the Indians and the

Colonists of South Africa. His hearty support was given to the resolution of the Indian Legislative Council that, at the next Imperial Conference in London, India should be represented. 1916

By his wise administration, his deep sympathy and his acceptable reforms, Lord Hardinge won high esteem in India.

LORD CHELMSFORD.

Lord Chelmsford had governed Queensland and New South Wales with success before his appointment in India. He assumed office at a critical time. The pressing strain of the Great War, the ever brewing troubles on the Frontier caused by the unsteady attitude of Afghanistan and the restlessness of the Tribesmen, the smouldering embers of the Ghadr conspiracy, the ravages of influenza and of famine, and the high prices for necessities in life due to the War, were some of the difficulties he had to face. Sedition was spreading and the British military forces were small. 1916-1921.

EVENTS. A. The Indian Defence Force was organised. All British subjects, under the age of 45, were held liable for service in any part of India.

THE CHAMBER
OF PRINCES.

B. THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES.—A Conference of Indian Princes and Chiefs met at Delhi. The Viceroy hoped it would grow into a Constitutional Assembly. The Gaekwar, who was President, thought it necessary that Indian rulers should have a definite place in the Constitution of the Empire and a share in the administration of India as they formed one-third of India and one-fourth of its population. In 1919, by the King's proclamation, a permanent Chamber of Princes was inaugurated. 1916.

THIRD AFGHAN
WAR.
PAGE 332.

C. Afghanistan, which had been a source of anxiety throughout the Great War, gave serious trouble shortly after the Treaty of Versailles was completed. The Afghans and Tribesmen under Amanullah raided British territory but were soon checked. Desultory warfare against Mahsud and Waziri tribes continued for some time after peace was made with Afghanistan. 1919.

POLITICAL.

D. The political situation grew complex. There were two currents running strongly towards the goal of swaraj or self-government. The one carried along with it those Indians who sought by constitutional agitation to secure their aim : the other bore those who through sedition made for the same end.

HOME RULE.

The first party was made up of those who

dissent of the non-official Indian members of the Council. These held that the Rowlatt Act would hinder the free growth of public political life, for it tended to harass individual freedom. They did not impugn the facts upon which the Act rested nor did they propose new measures to cope with the sedition that was aife. They proposed the keeping to the Defence of India Realms Act and maintained that, if the Rowlatt Act were not repealed, political conflagration would rage in India. Their forecast served to flatter sedition and to harden the Government but it was, nevertheless, not far short of the truth.

MR. GANDHI

At this stage Mr. Gandhi came forward to champion the cause of political freedom in India. Of medium size, frail, keenly intelligent and ascetic, he stood an embodiment of soul force over physical power. As a lawyer he had practised in South Africa and had, by his method of passive resistance, won success against the unfair treatment of the Indians there. He left South Africa with no friendly feeling for the British system of government and, on his return to India, first used his method of passive resistance at Champaran in Bihar to annul the obligation imposed on the tenants of allotting a part of their holdings to the cultivation of indigo,

and again employed the same means in the Kaira district of the Bombay Presidency to lessen the amount of revenue to be paid after famine had visited that district.

SATYAGRAHA.

With this successful experience behind him, Mr. Gandhi set about to obtain the repeal of the Rowlatt Act by employing his form of passive resistance. At bottom, it was organised civil disobedience of government to be carried on without offering violence. It was called Satyagraha. Mr. Gandhi described it as follows: "Satyagraha is truth in all your doings. This implies: A. resistance to evil in yourself; B. civil assistance to the state in resisting evil; C. civil resistance to the state if the state be evil; D. this civil resistance should be passive and non-violent; E: soul-force should overcome brute force." His voice was heard from one end of India to the other. All parties knit themselves together under his leadership. He awoke to full life and strength that sense of nationalhood which, hitherto, had shown itself in a demand for home-rule.

The campaign for the repeal of the Rowlatt Act began by the observance of a great hartal or day of mourning all over India. At Delhi, the hartal led to rioting at the rail-

way station with loss of life. Mr. Gandhi set out for Delhi but was brought back to Bombay. This return was rumoured as an arrest and led to serious loss of life at Amritsar, Ahmedabad, Viramgaon, Lahore and other places.

THE KHILAFAT
QUESTION.

While this movement, which was pre-^{1919.}
dominantly Hindu, grew apace, Pan-Islam
working from Turkey, wrought deeply upon
Mohamedan religious feeling in India.
Turkey had been defeated in the War. The

TREATY OF
SEVRES.

^{1920.} Treaty of Sevres stated that Turkey should
be made up of a section of Thrace, of Con-
stantinople under allied control, and of the
Turkish area in Asia Minor including Anatolia
and Angora : the Black Sea should be free to
international shipping : Eastern Thrace
should belong to Greece ; the Armenian dis-
trict of Turkey should be added to the Arme-
nian Republic ; Syria, Mesopotamia and
Palestine should be independent states
guided by the administrative advice and
assistance of mandatory powers ; the Hedjaz
should be a free state, allowing free and ready
access to Mecca and Medina to Mohamedan
pilgrims from all countries ; Turkey should
relinquish all rights and titles over Egypt,
the Soudan and Cyprus and to certain
islands in the Aegean and acknowledge the
French protectorate over Morocco and

Tunis. Other restrictions reduced the military, naval and air forces of Turkey and controlled her finance.

Pan-Islam declared that this spoliation of Turkey was a Christian attempt to destroy Mohamедanism and that, therefore, every Mohamедan in the world, no matter what his political allegiance might be, had to strive, even with the sword, to recover for Turkey all her lost possessions. These possessions included those places in Arabia which contain the holy places of Islam. This tract of territory is known as the *Zazirat-ul Arab*. Now, according to the *Sharak*, this tract of territory should always be in the possession of and be protected by the Khalifa. Islam maintained that, in order to do so, the Khalifa should be a powerful king who should be both the spiritual and temporal head of Islam. This official position is known as the *Khilafat of Turkey*.

THE KHILAFAT. But besides the *Khilafat of Turkey*, other *Khilafats* existed in the world of Islam, for instance, at *Haidarabad Deccan*, in *Afghanistan* and in *Morocco*. Each was often a combination of the spiritual and temporal power in an individual ruler but not necessarily so; for, the *Khilafat* was always considered mainly a spiritual power. Moreover, each *Khila*

fat was independent of the other. None of them acknowledged the spiritual or temporal supremacy of the Khilafat of Turkey. The making of the Turkish Khilafat into a rallying point for all Mohamedans in the world is more recent doctrine. It was the late Sultan Hamid of Turkey who first contended that all Mohamedans were in duty bound to maintain that the Khilafat of Turkey was the Khilafat of Islam.

No doubt the Khilafat of Turkey, with the Sultan as both Khalifa and the Ruler, gave Turkey a political advantage. It was made use of now to save Turkey from her losses due to the War. To the Mohamedan in India, the matter was represented as religious. If Turkey did not get back all her lost territory, the Sultan could not adequately fulfil his onerous duties as the Khalifa of Islam. Indeed, owing to the Treaty of Sevres, his position was such as to weaken all Islam. How hollow this pill was came to light when, later on in 1922, the Angora Assembly of loyal Turks separated the temporal Sultanate from the spiritual Khilafat, to the manifest surprise of the Mohamedan in India.

Agitation was set on foot now to have all Turkey's possessions restored to Mohamed-

danism were not to suffer. Mr. Gandhi was not slow to see how powerful an aid the Khilafat question could be. He appealed for Mohamedan and Hindu to unite in bringing pressure upon the Government to repeal the Rowlatt Act and to have the Home Government do justice to Turkey.

PUNJAB
UNREST.

Political feeling ran high. To the ordinary mind it was hard to tell which of its doings was constitutional agitation and which was sedition. Unrest in the Punjab grew very strong. At Amritsar martial law had to be proclaimed. This means that when the civil authority finds itself powerless to control a population, it calls in and hands over its authority to the military. The military draw up a temporary law and enforce it till such time as the civil authority can resume control. In carrying out its temporary law, the military are to act in good faith and are responsible for what is done to restore order. In the town of Amritsar martial law forbade seditious meetings. A vast crowd, however, gathered in a public spot called the Jallianwallah Baugh. Those, who convened the meeting, said they did so to agitate constitutionally for their political rights; but in the eyes of General Dyer, who was in military command of the city, the meeting was

sedition. The meeting refused to disperse when ordered to do so and was fired on. About 500 were killed and a great number wounded. This stern measure caused intense indignation. A committee under Sir Archibald Hunter investigated the unfortunate incident. Two reports were drawn up. The Majority report by British officials justified the employment of Martial Law, blamed Satyagraha for the spirit of rebellion but admitted that some of the orders passed by General Dyer were wanting in judgment and condemned, among other things, the Roll-Call imposed on Indian students at Lahore and the Crawling Order which obliged Indians to crawl through those streets in which Europeans had lost their lives in the recent rioting. The Minority report by Indians denied that the disorders amounted to rebellion, found Martial Law need not have been enforced, and, while admitting Satyagraha had exercised a disquieting influence, maintained that not it but mob-frenzy had caused the disturbance ; they condemned the whole attitude of General Dyer and attributed all his actions to racial ill-feeling. Both re- 1920. ports were sent to the House of Commons. It strongly censured General Dyer's actions and cashiered him. But the House of Lords was not of the same mind.

This regrettable incident strengthened the hold Mr Gandhi and the Ali Brothers had upon the country. The former declared the British Government was "satanic" and exhorted India to offer civil resistance to it but without violence. Such passive civil disobedience would rid India of British control. Thus Satyagraha became non-co-operation.

NON-CO-OPERATION.

Mr. Gandhi defined its various stages as: A. the hartal or mourning designed to wean Indians from all dealings with the Government; B. the renouncing of Government titles and distinctions and the withdrawal of all Indians from Government employment; C. the leaving of their posts by the police and the military, the forces by which Government maintains order; D. the refusal to pay the taxes or to obey any civil laws under so evil a Government.

Non-co-operation meant to afflict Government with paralysis. Mr. Gandhi admitted that it could lead to revolution with bloodshed.

Fortunately agitation found it had now to occupy itself with another matter. As has been said, the Government of India Act, with its measures for self-government in the provinces and for the enlarging of the non-official Indian representation in the Imperial

councils, was thrown open to criticism before it should become Law. Discussion of its provisions had a practical influence on political life. The stream of political life again grew distinct in its currents. Moderate or Liberal politicians, who took swaraj to mean home-rule within the Empire and who meant to secure it steadily and by degrees, supported the Act. All who held to non-co-operation maintained that the Act should be ignored. They wanted swaraj independent of the British Empire and wanted it at once whether with or without social chaos. Non-co-operation could give them this. So they added to its programme the boycott of Law-courts, of Government schools and of the new Legislature proposed by the Act. Mr. Gandhi promised that, within a year, the swaraj, which non-co-operation wanted, could be won. He thus secured the powerful support of the Indian National Congress which, in order to give its help, renounced its intention to preserve the connection of India with the British Empire and, in consequence, changed its original constitution. Schools and colleges, refusing all Government aid and based on purely Indian ideals, were started. In almost every Indian village, committees actively taught non-co-operation as the short cut to the coming millenium. A detailed

campaign against Government was carried on by the Congress Working Committee, whose orders were to be carried out by the National Militia of volunteers.

THE NEW
LEGISLATURE.

While non-co-operation was thus becoming anarchic, the Moderates or Liberals, who believed in an orderly and gradual winning of swaraj in keeping with the lack of political education among the masses, supported the Government. Their leaders took their places in the reformed Legislative Councils. The new Legislature was formally opened at a Durbar held in Delhi. The Duke of Connaught presided and announced the King-Emperor's message which declared that swaraj within the Empire was now to begin its course and that the widest scope and ample opportunity for progress towards the liberty which other Dominions enjoyed, would be accorded to India.

In the new Legislature thus inaugurated and based on the Government of India Act, the non-official or the elected members of the Imperial Legislative Assembly and of the Council of State control an absolute majority over any number of votes the Central Government can possibly command. Lord Chelmsford, therefore, when addressing the Durbar, remarked that the principle of autocracy in 1921.

the administration of India had now been definitely discarded. Responsibility for the government of the country would in future rest with the elected representatives of the people in the Imperial Legislative Assembly and in the Council of State.

Shortly after the promulgation of the new Legislature, Lord Chelmsford left India. His term of office had been a very trying one in its manifold difficulties ; but, throughout, he maintained a cool and determined mind and bluntly carried out his duty. Throughout his viceroyalty, India was under the stress of the Great War. When he arrived, the first outburst of war-enthusiasm had died out. Depression had set in. Despite this, he bore the great burden of giving to the Empire large supplies of men, money and material such as could ill be spared, at a time when he had to safeguard India from external aggression and internal disaster.

**SOME
REFORMS.**

In 1916 the educated classes of India were bitterly dissatisfied. Indian's effort in the War seemed to have been little appreciated ; her position in the Commonwealth was ill-defined ; the goal of British rule in India had never been fully stated ; on racial grounds, Indians had been deprived of the privilege of bearing arms ; they could not aspire to the

King's Commissions in the army ; in the Imperial Service of India their status was unimportant ; the Morley-Minto Reforms of 1909 gave them no power of control over the Executive : some of the Dominions refused to acknowledge them equally as British subjects.

At the close of Lord Chelmsford's term of office, the change for the better was great. The goal of British rule in India had been stated. It told India she could look forward to self-government as a dominion within the British Empire. In consequence, racial stigma was removed from the Arms Act ; Indian soldiers could hold the King's Commissions in the army ; Indian youths could get a military training in Sandhurst or in the Territorial units and learn to fit themselves for the defence of their country. India became a member of the Imperial Conference: her representatives signed the Treaty of Versailles : she became an original member of the League of Nations : she was represented at the Armament Conference held at Washington ; and the self-governing Dominions, with one exception, accepted her new position in the British Commonwealth, viewing her not as a dependency but as a sister nation on the path to complete equality with themselves.

These services to India will in the future characterise Lord Chelmsford's term of office as one in which important changes were wrought.

LORD READING.

Before his appointment as Viceroy, Lord ^{1921.} Reading had, by force of talent and of character, worked his way up in life to the exalted position of Lord Chief Justice of England. His liberal views, his wide experience, his diplomatic services and his judicial career combined to fit him for his work at the helm at a time when the bark of state was setting out to steer itself by the new Legislature in face of the stormy political outlook.

EVENTS. Non-co-operation was drifting into anarchy. In the Punjab, a reforming section of the Sikh community upbraided the Mahants or hereditary guardians of the Gurudwaras or shrines for their long neglect of duty.

THE AKALIS. Into this quarrel the spirit of non-co-operation was brought by the Akali volunteers, who, strongly revolutionary, disregarded Law and seized the shrines at Tara-Taran. Rioting with loss of life ensued. Disregard for Law followed in other parts of India and in Assam. Mr. Gandhi still held for non-violence and started the boycott of liquor-shops and of foreign cloth and advocated the use of khaddar or cloth woven by the spinning-wheel.

But most of his followers, and the Khilafatists in particular, sought revolution. When the National Militia had its doings checked by Law, mob violence broke out at Giridih in Bihar, at Malegaon near Bombay and in several parts of the Madras Presidency. At this stage, the Greek offensive against Turkey and the failure to modify the Treaty of Sevres, drove Mohamedan feeling to resolve at Karachi that the Indian National Congress should declare India, a republic. This Karachi resolution, combined with the violent religious propaganda of the Ali Brothers and Gandhi's promise of speedyswaraj, spread the flame of Mohamedan fanaticism from mosque to mosque, from village to village of the Moplahs, a turbulent mixed Arab and Hindu race living in the Malabar district. In their rebellion, they killed the few European planters they caught unawares and, on meeting with no support from the loyal Hindus, massacred them, desecrated their temples, made forcible conversions and did other abominable deeds. With strenuous effort, Government quelled this outbreak. Gandhi condoned it as "a fighting for what the Moplahs considered religion and in a manner which they considered religious." Viewing the outbreak in the same light, the Ali Brothers maintained that what religion

THE MOPLAH
OUT-BREAK.

demanded should be above the control of Law. So violently did they assail the Government that they were arrested and sent to prison for two years. In its turn the All-India Congress retaliated by advocating civil disobedience on the part of the masses. This meant the wilful breaking of the Law so as to make Government impossible and thus to lead to its overthrow. The Government was viewed as wholly evil and its laws as non-moral. In the Anand and Bardoli districts of the Guzarat Province, civil disobedience was got ready. At this juncture the Prince of Wales arrived in India. His visit was viewed as political. On the day he arrived, serious rioting broke out in Bombay. Gandhi, who was in the city, publicly said: "The swaraj that I have witnessed during the last two days has stunk in my nostrils. I am more instrumental than any other in bringing into being a spirit of revolt. I find myself not fully capable of controlling and disciplining that spirit." The National Militia took him at his word and practised terrorism more effectively till Government applied the Sedition Meetings Act and called on the Police to give more stalwart protection to defenceless citizens. Indian politicians, however, viewed the action of Government as suppressive of

freedom of speech and of political association. In order to thrash the situation out, both Moderates and Extremists proposed a Round-Table Conference to the Viceroy, who replied that such a conference was not possible unless non-co-operation respected Law. Gandhi, too, declared that it was not possible unless Government gave up its attitude towards the National Militia and released all political prisoners: without this he would not stop recruitment for the Militia nor preparation for wholesale civil disobedience. His attitude led the Moderates back to the support of Government. At the meeting, which followed at Ahmedabad, of the Indian National Congress and the All-India Muslim League, Gandhi, in whom all the executive power lay, resolved that the Viceroy be made to understand that non-co-operation was at war with the Government. He sent an ultimatum blaming him for the dropping of the Round-Table Conference but proposing that, should all political prisoners be freed and the progress of non-co-operation be unmolested, civil disobedience would be held over till such time as it took the freed politicians to gauge and advise upon the situation in India.

Non-co-operation was now at high tide. Its ebb set in. The Khilafatist party, which

ANGLO-AFGHAN
TREATY.

stood upon the ground that the Government was anti-Islam, felt taken aback when Afghanistan, the leading Islam kingdom of Central Asia, leagued itself in friendship with that Government. Not long after, the latter published the memorandum it had sent to the Home Government, in which it stated that the intense Muslim feeling in India called for the modifying of the Treaty of Sevres. It urged the evacuation of Constantinople by the Allies: the suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey over the holy places; and the restoration to Turkey of Eastern Thrace including Adrianople and Smyrna. Muslim opinion realised that the Government was not anti-Islam and more would be gained by supporting it than the schemes of Gandhi. 1921.

GOVERNMENT
MEMORANDUM.

CHAURI-CHAURA.

The latter, having received from the Viceroy a crushing reply to his ultimatum and finding that the activity of the National Militia was being curbed more sharply than had been expected, went to Bardoli to supervise the starting of civil disobedience in mass. But the unprovoked massacre of a score of Indian policemen and watchmen at Chauri-Chaura by a mixed mob of Militia and rustics, shed a lurid light on civil disobedience. Gandhi again took to non-violence as an

ideal. But the All-India Congress at Delhi disapproved of the change. Its trust in him waned. His swaraj had not come with the fleeting of Time. No constructive policy of his drew the Congress on. This was the moment for which the long sighted patience of Government had waited. It took Gandhi into custody for a term of six years. Non-co-operation, however, went on and has since avowed its aim of entering the Legislature, thereby to wreck the Government and to secure swaraj the sooner.

LEGAL.

The new Legislature throughout this stormy time guided the bark of State on towards sound swaraj. Wherever possible, repressive legislation was done away with ; resolutions for the removal of racial distinction in the Indian Civil Service and in the criminal jurisdiction over European British subjects were secured ; equal status for Indian subjects in East Africa and its Protectorates was demanded ; the confiding of posts in the Secretariat connected with the inmost administration of the country was obtained ; the request to lesson, as laid down by the Government of India Act, the interval of time before Indians should have full self-government. was forwarded by the Governor-in-Council to the Secretary of State.

MILITARY.

Amendments on the Esher Report, which seemed to transfer the control of the Indian Army from the State to a central Imperial authority, were sent to the Secretary of State demanding that the control of the Indian army should remain with India : an Indian Territorial organisation of seven units for service in India was formed; an Indian military training college preparatory to Sandhurst was sanctioned; the appointment of Indian officers in control of eight Indian units of the army was granted.

FINANCIAL.

The Income Tax Bill left the yearly imposition of any rate of tax to the decision of the Assembly. Economy was strongly insisted upon, especially in military expenditure.

A Retrenchment Committee under Lord Inchape as President reduced the Budget estimate of expenditure from 29 to 19 crores. The G. I. P. and E. I. Railways were to be brought under state control after two years.

IRRIGATION.

For the purpose of bridling the waters of the Indus so as to develop irrigation in Sindh, the Sukkur Barrage Scheme was sanctioned. Thirty miles from Poona at a place called Bhatgar, Sir George Lloyd laid the foundation stone of a dam which will buttress a supply of water able to irrigate

THE LLOYD
DAM:

900,000 acres of Deccan soil hitherto famine-stricken. The dam is the creation of the Public Works Department under the direction of Mr. C. Pooley and is named after the Governor. It is more than a mile long, is 125 feet wide at the base and rises to a height of 190 feet. The water stored by the Lloyd Dam will form a lake 18 miles long and 46 miles in circumference with a maximum depth of 113 feet. It is the largest irrigation work in the world.

ROYAL VISIT.

The visit of the Prince of Wales, though politically beset with difficulty, enabled him to grow more acquainted with the many-sided problems of British rule in this part of the Empire. Much loyalty was shown him. His visit encouraged the majority of India to pursue and persevere in the allegiance of the country to the Crown.

CHAPTER XXVI.

Indian Administration.

ITS
POLITICAL
GROWTH

The Queen's Proclamation transferred the administration of India from the Company to the Crown. It pledged itself to administer India for the good of the people and in that pledge lay hidden the germ of self-government. Indians of whatever race or creed were to be freely and impartially admitted to office under the Crown. 1858.

LORD CANNING

The first step towards self-government lay in decentralising the administration. Lord Canning, in matters of finance, made the Provinces begin to share in the responsibility of government. He also appointed Indians to legislative positions. 1861.

COUNCILS
FORMED

In 1853, the Council of the Governor-General had been enlarged by six members whose duty lay in assisting the Governor-General in the forming of Laws. This beginning of the Legislative Councils was de-

veloped by Lord Canning, who admitted Indians as nominated members of the Supreme Legislative Council and founded similar Councils in Bombay and Madras. Thus an Imperial Legislative Council and Provincial Legislative Councils were formed. Besides these, there was an Imperial Executive Council for all India and Provincial Executive Councils for each Presidency. So far Indian members of these Councils were *nominated*, i.e.

LORD DUFFERIN.

chosen by the Government. But Lord Dufferin, in enlarging the membership of Provincial Legislative Councils, conferred the right of electing members to these Councils, on Municipalities, Universities and Chambers of Commerce. Such elected members represented the opinion of men, who were not Government officials or who were not nominated by Government. They were, thus, freer in discussing any measure Government proposed for legislation.

1892.

ELECTIVE
REPRESENTA
TION.

The elected members of each Provincial Legislative Council also obtained the right to elect one of their number to represent them on the Imperial Legislative Council.

The principle of elective representation was further developed in what are known as the Morley-Minto Reforms. Owing to these Reforms in the Provincial Legislative Coun-

1909.

LORD MINTO.

cils, the majority came to be elected members and could thus out-vote the official minority. This meant that the Government could not absolutely do as it liked but could be bound by the opinion of the elected members, who represented the people.

The Imperial Legislative Assembly then consisted of the Imperial Executive Council and of 60 members, 33 of whom were elected. Once Representation on the Provincial and Imperial Legislative Councils began, it was bound to grow. The Indians desire the government of India by themselves. Agitation for wider representation naturally arose. Hence when India had proved its loyalty to the Crown by its help in the Great War, the Secretary of State for India announced in the House of Commons that India would be granted self-government as the goal of the present British policy. Progress towards the goal was to be gradual. The announcement meant a great gain to Representative Government in India. More than before, Indians would now be responsible for the governing of India. If the Act worked well enough in the Provinces, Indians would receive in time full responsibility for the whole government of India. In other words, they would form the Central Government of India.

SELF
GOVERNMENT.

Aug.
20th
1917.

LORD
CHELMSFORD.

THE REFORM
SCHEME.

THE
GOVERNMENT
OF INDIA ACT.

In connection with this announcement, Mr. Montagu, the Secretary of State for India, came out and travelled over the country with the Viceroy, to ascertain the wishes of India in connection with the new proposal. They issued the Montagu-Chelmsford Reform Scheme. This was placed before Parliament and, later on, a Joint Council drew up the Government of India Act, which embodies the Reform Scheme. The King-Emperor issued a Proclamation stating that the Act marked an epoch in the annals of India. "The Act" he added "entrusts elected representatives of the people with a definite share in the Government and points the way to full responsible Government hereafter—."

Briefly stated the Act involved reform first in the Central Government. These reforms meant a slight relaxation in the control of Parliament and of the Secretary of State over Indian affairs: an increase of Indians in the Imperial Executive Council; the replacing of the Imperial Legislative Council by a Council of State of 60 members and by a Legislative Assembly of 141 members, of whom 103 are elected; of the 41 remaining, only 26 are officials and these include the members of the Executive Council. Up to 1920, the President of the Imperial Legislative Council

1919

was the Viceroy. But, though no longer President, he can assemble the Council to discuss any urgent matter of importance and can veto a decision it has taken. He has the right to nominate the President of the Council of State and to propose measures to this Council for acceptance.

Secondly in the Provincial Government the following Reforms were made. The Provincial Executive Council was now to consist of the Governor and officials and Indian ministers appointed by the Governor. The former are entrusted with the reserved subjects and the latter with the transferred subjects. The Provincial Legislative Council had its membership enlarged and was to contain a majority of elected members.

The general result of the Act was to give Indians the majority in the Legislative Councils and fuller representation in the Executive. Greater responsibility for the Government of India was thereby transferred to Indians. Before Lord Chelmsford retired, the Duke of Connaught held a special Durbar at Delhi **1921.** and there opened the reformed system of administration in India.

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

According to the Act, the Government of India continued to be divided into the Central and Local Governments.

I. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT.

The Central looks to the welfare of India as a whole and deals with its foreign policy. One division of it, is the Home Government consisting of the King, the two Houses of Parliament, the Secretary of State and the India Council.

HOME GOVERNMENT.

The King and the two Houses of Parliament are the supreme legislative and executive power but, in fact, only supervise the Government of India. The Secretary of State practically governs India for Parliament. He is a Cabinet Minister and, as such, has to lay the annual Indian Budget before the House of Commons for discussion. War cannot be declared by India without his approval. The Viceroy is immediately responsible to him. Many high official appointments are made by him. The India Council is to help the Secretary of State, who is free to follow its counsel, except in finance. It has from 8 to 12 members, 3 of whom are Indians, and half of the members must have had official experience in India for at least 10 years and not have left India later than

five years before their appointment to the Council.

INDIAN
IMPERIAL
GOVERNMENT.

The other division of the Central Government is the Imperial Government in India. It is made up of the Viceroy, the Executive Council, the Council of State and the Legislative Council. The Viceroy rules according to instruction from the Secretary of State ; he is over all other Governors and officials in India ; all laws depend upon his sanction ; he has full power in dealing with the Indian States ; like the King, he can change or overrule a decision of the Courts of Law.

IMPERIAL
EXECUTIVE
COUNCIL.

The Executive Council assists the Viceroy in the Administration. The Viceroy is its head and controls both Indian and Foreign affairs. The Commander-in-chief deals with military matters. The Home Member is concerned with internal good order ; the Public Works Office sees to the collection of taxes, agriculture and public works, such as irrigation ; the Financial Member looks after the Accounts ; the Law Member frames new Laws and deals with exceptional difficulties in applying the Law. Commerce and Education have each their own Ministers. This Council forms a kind of Cabinet. The Viceroy and his executive Councillors are also known as the Governor-General in Council. Three Indians belong to this Council.

**THE COUNCIL
OF STATE.**

The Council of State is an Upper Legislative Body which frames Laws on central subjects in which the whole of India is concerned ; 33 of its 60 members are elected by voters, who are British Subjects, 21 years of age, and pay a land tax of Rs. 2,000 a year or an annual income tax of Rs. 30,000. Owners of entire villages, fellows of Universities, Presidents and Vice-Presidents of Municipalities also have the right to elect members to this Council.

**IMPERIAL
LEGISLATIVE
COUNCIL.**

The Legislative Assembly is the Lower Legislating House. It also makes Laws that concern India as a whole ; 103 out of 144 members are elected by British Subjects, 21 years of age, who pay an income tax or own land whose revenue is Rs. 75 a year.

In framing Laws, the Legislative Assembly follows a definite method. A member of the assembly proposes what is called a private Bill ; if the Legislative Assembly accepts the Bill, it is sent to the Council of State for approval ; if the latter rejects the Bill, a joint session of the two Houses may discuss it again and modify it. When finally passed, the Executive Council still retains the right to reject or modify or agree to it.

A Bill proposed by the Governor-in-Council is called a Government Bill. As a rule,

it is submitted to the Legislative Assembly. If this rejects the Bill and if the Governor-in-Council considers the Bill necessary for the good of India, he can refer the Bill to the Council of State, and, if it passes it, he has merely to report the fact to the Legislative Assembly. Such a case has already occurred. The Viceroy proposed a Bill defending Indian States against their seditious subjects, who hatch plots against the States in British territory. The Legislative Assembly rejected the Bill. The Council of State passed it and the Viceroy let the Assembly know officially of the fact. In case the Council of State does not accept a Bill from the Viceroy, the Viceroy, if convinced that the Bill is for the good of India, can make the Bill become Law but has to lay his reasons for doing so before Parliament. Any Bill, which becomes permanent Law, must first receive the sanction of the Home Government.

2. LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Local or Provincial Government varies in India. Eight out of the fifteen Provinces in India have a Governor, an Executive and a Legislative Council. These eight Provinces are Bengal, Bombay, Madras, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam.

PROVINCIAL
EXECUTIVE.

The Governor is appointed for five years and is responsible to the Viceroy whose instructions he must follow. The Executive Council consists of two parts. One is the Governor and his official colleagues or the Governor-in-Council. In larger Provinces this Council consists of four, two of whom must be non-official Indians. It deals with certain subjects known as reserved subjects. The chief reserved subjects are Irrigation, Land Revenue, Famine Relief, Justice, Police and Prisons, Public Services, taxes and loans.

RESERVED
SUBJECTS.

TRANSFERRED
SUBJECTS.

The other part of the Executive Council consists of Indian Ministers appointed by the Governor from the elected members of the Legislative Council. These are responsible to the Legislative Council. To them are confided what are known as transferred subjects, of which Education, Sanitation, Agriculture, Forests, Industries, and Local Self-Government are the most important.

In case of doubt whether a subject be reserved or transferred, the decision of the Governor, as head of the Administration, is final.

Both parts of the Provincial Executive are independent of each other except when the importance of the matter calls for mutual consultation.

Orders on reserved subjects are issued as the orders of the Governor-General-in-Council; on transferred subjects, they are called orders of the Governor in consultation with the Ministers.

DIARCHY.

This splitting up of the Provincial Executive is called Diarchy or two-fold rule and will gradually be dropped in favour of the Indian Ministers, to whom more of the reserved subjects will be transferred.

**PROVINCIAL
LEGISLATIVE.**

The power of the Provincial Legislative Assembly, in the administration of its Province, is large; 70 per cent of its members are elected by British Subjects, 21 years of age and paying or receiving an annual house rent of Rs. 35 or paying an income tax. The number of members varies with the size of the Province. When the Governor declares that a Bill or an amendment to a Bill is essential to the welfare of a Province, the Legislative Assembly must pass it; nor can it pass a Bill which the Governor considers harmful to the Province. The Provincial Budget comes under the criticism of the Assembly which may alter the Budget except when, in the case of a reserved subject, the Governor deems the financial allotment necessary. Every Bill must be sanctioned by the Governor and by the Governor-General.

**CHIEF
COMMISSIONERS:**

Of the seven remaining divisions of British India, the Province of Delhi and the N. W. Frontier Province are administered by a Chief Commissioner appointed by and under the direct control of the Governor-General. They have no Council yet.

**AGENT
GENERALS.**

British Baluchistan and Ajmere-Merwara come under an Agent-General practically appointed by and directly controlled by the Governor-General.

RESIDENTS.

Coorg is administered by the Resident of Mysore, and the Andamans by the Superintendent of the Penal Settlements at Port Blair.

A Governor now rules over Burma. Its political constitution has an Executive and a Legislative Council.

**SUB-ADMINIS-
TRATION.**

In the chief Provinces, Administrative authority is delegated to Commissioners Collectors and Sub-divisional Officers.

**THE
COMMISSIONER.**

A Commissioner is at the head of a division which contains several districts. He supervises the work of Collectors, sends them instructions, and is responsible to the Governor to whom he must report and whose instructions he must obey.

**THE
COLLECTOR.**

A Collector is the head of a district and has to care for the details of administration.

He must gather the land revenue and taxes, keep records of land and registers, administer criminal justice, and control other departments in the district. Coming, as he does, into contact with all classes of people, his duties are most important. District Boards afford him advice and information.

TALUKHA.

A Sub-divisional Officer is the head of a sub-division of a district. This sub-division is called a Talukha. His duties are similar to those of the Collector, to whom he has to report and whose instructions he must fulfil.

THE PANCHAYAT.

Talukha Boards advise and inform the Sub-divisional Officer. Its members are partly elected, partly nominated. Besides the District Boards and Talukhas, in cities and towns, Municipalities share in local self-government. The last Agent in local self-government is the Panchayat. The head of this is the Patel who, with the help of other villagers, decides disputes in the village, maintains law and tradition and cares for the general tone and welfare of the village. It is the oldest form of self-government in India.

CHAPTER XXVII.

The Indian States.

THE
PROCLAMATION.

The Queen's Proclamation confirmed all **1858.**
treaties and engagements made by the East
India Company with the Indian States and
pledged itself to respect the rights, dignities
and honour of the Indian Princes and to
further the prosperity and social advance-
ment of their possessions. No encroachment
was to be made upon their territories. At
that time the Rulers of Indian States were
Allies of the Crown. But the Act of Parlia- **1877.**

THE ROYAL
TITLES ACT.

ment, which enabled the Queen to assume
the title of Empress of India, brought the
Indian States into the British Empire and
changed their relationship towards the Crown.
Ever since 1857, the dependence of the
Indian States upon the Crown had grown
insensibly. No new definite treaties had
brought this about. But, from being mere
allies, they, by the Act, became parts of the
British Empire. Though their people did

POLITICAL
POSITION.

not, thereby, become British Subjects of British India, they henceforward ranked as British Subjects of the British Empire. Politically, they are somewhat like the subjects of a British dominion out of India. But they are protected by and, in several matters, are under the control of the British Government in India.

Indian States frame their own laws, and have their own coinage and Courts of Justice.

The Law of Lapse, of course, no longer exists. The British Government, nevertheless, does not permit a Raja to divide the territory of the State among his sons. No State may form political ties with foreign powers or with other Indian States. War cannot be waged by one State on another. The British Resident of the State is to be consulted on all important matters. In cases of civil war or misrule, the British Government can interfere and depose the Ruler but not annex the State.

There are about 700 States in India. Most of them are small. They are divided into three classes.

VARIOUS
CLASSES.

First Class States are 5 in number. These are Haidarabad, Mysore, Baroda, Kashmir and Nepal. They deal directly with the Viceroy.

Second Class States number 170 and are grouped into the Central India Agency, the Rajputana Agency and the Baluchistan Agency. The first contains 148, among which are Gwalior, Indore, Bhopal and Rewa ; the second has 20 and includes Jodhpur, Bikanir, Jaipur, Udaipur, Bharatpur and Kotah ; the third agency is made up of Kelat and Las Bela. All these groups are under an Agent to the Governor-General.

Third Class States are under the control of provincial Governors. Bengal contains 30 including Sikkim and Cooch Bihar ; the United Provinces has 2, including Rampur ; the Bombay Presidency has 344 with Kolhapur and Cutch ; in the Madras Presidency there are Travancore, Cochin, and Pudukottah ; in the Punjab there are 34 including Patiala, Nabha, Bahawalpur and Kapurthala. Burma has 52 States.

CHAMBER OF
PRINCES.

The King-Emperor, in his Proclamation, **1919**, established a Chamber of Princes. This Chamber aims at advancing those interests which are common to their territories and to British India and of advantage to the Empire as a whole. Their attendance is not compulsory.

PROMINENT INDIANS.

DADABHAI NAOROJI.

1825-
1917.

Dadabhai Naoroji was born in Bombay in humble circumstances and, as a student, was remarkably intelligent. He was the first Indian to hold a Professorship in a Government College. While lecturing on Mathematics at Elphinstone College, he also did much social and literary work. In 1853, he did business for a Parsec firm in England, and there gave his leisure to lectures on India. On his return to Bombay in 1869, his services were publicly and warmly acknowledged by his countrymen. He continued his social and educational labours in the city till his appointment as Dewan of Baroda in 1871. Many reforms were introduced by him into that State. In 1885, he was appointed as additional member of the Governor's Council in Bombay. In the formation and direction of the Indian National Congress, which was then opened, he played a leading rôle. On his return to England in 1886, he was unsuccessful in his endeavour to enter Parliament, came back to India, was elected President of the National Congress in 1887, then went back to England and in 1893 was a member of the House of Commons. In that year he found time to come

back to India to preside over the National Congress held at Lahore. In 1895, he was one of the Royal Commission on Indian expenditure. In this he was again the first Indian to hold such a position. His well-known work entitled "Poverty and un-British Rule in India" was published in 1901. While still in England, he was elected, in 1905, President of the National Congress for the third time. His reception in Bombay and Calcutta has not been paralleled. Under his leadership, the Congress resolved that Swaraj should be the aim in future of Indian political endeavour. He returned to England in 1907 but, as his health did not improve, he came back and spent the remainder of his long life at Versova.

SIR PHENNZESHAH MUNSHI

Born in Bombay in 1836 Sir Phenzeshah after taking his degree of Master of Arts, went to England to study Law and on his return, became a very successful lawyer and, in 1872, entered the Bombay Municipality, was thrice made its President and spent 38 years in its service. He did much towards the founding of the National Congress in 1885 and, in 1886, was a member of the Bombay Legislative Council. He was its President in 1890. Later on, he became a member of the Imperial Legislative Council. For his

US465-
19015.

public services. he was appointed a C.I.E. in 1891 and a K.C.I.E. in 1901. He was a gifted orator, a great fighter and the trusted leader of the politicians of his day.

BALGANGADHAR TILAK.

Balgangadhar Tilak was born at Ratnagiri, 1856-1920. graduated in 1876 and took to Law. Much of his time was given to promoting education. With Mr. Agarkar and two other friends, the New English School was started at Poona. His interest in journalism lent its support to the 'Maratha' and the 'Kesari' two prominent papers. Owing to an attack on the Karbhari of Kolhapur, he was imprisoned. In 1881, he and his friends erected the Fergusson College at Poona. From now on, he gave himself wholly to politics, sociology and Vedic study. A prominent member of the National Congress, he arranged special celebrations in honour of Sivaji. In 1897 he was imprisoned for certain seditious articles in the Kesari. For a similar offence he was, in 1908, sentenced to six years rigorous imprisonment. During these years he completed a popular commentary on the Gita. In 1916 he started the Home Rule League. Most of his career was a struggle against what he considered was the autocratic rule of the Government.

GOPAL KRISHNA GOKHALE.

1866-
1915.

While Professor of History and Economics at Fergusson College, he devoted himself for many years to educational and social work, became the Principal of the College, went to England as a member of the Welby Commission on Indian expenditure and, on retiring from College work, was elected to the Viceroy's Legislative Council in 1902. He was a keen critic of Government. Lord Curzon declared Gokhale was the ablest Indian he had met. In 1905, he was delegated to advocate Indian matters in England and, in the following year, presided over the National Congress held at Benares. Later on, he established the Servants of India Society, which has done and is doing very useful work towards the uplifting of the uneducated and poorer classes of the population.

JUSTICE RANADE.

1842-
1901.

After a very successful school and college course, he was first the Marathi translator to the Government and, later on, Professor of English Literature at Elphinstone College. Taking to Law, he became a Justice of the High Court of Bombay. His "Rise of the Maratha Power" and his "Political Economy" are books of note. His talents,

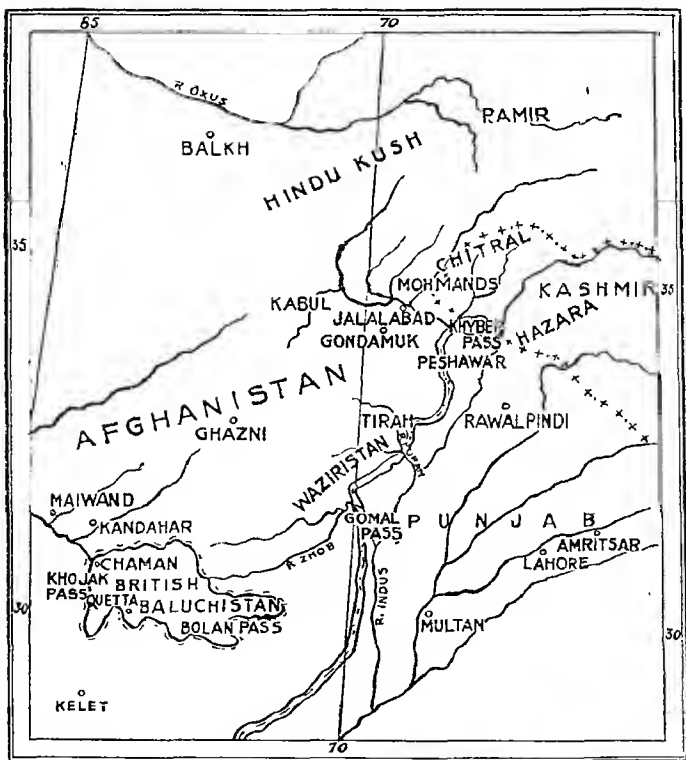
both moral and intellectual, enabled him to set a high ideal of patriotic duty before his countrymen. He was singularly free from all class or race prejudice. Of a retiring and modest disposition, the nobility and gentleness of his character, nevertheless, could not escape notice nor curtail the wide influence for good they exerted at a time when an old order of things was changing for the new in India.

LORD SINHA.

Lord Sinha reached a unique position in Indian public life, as Baron of Raipur and a Peer of the British Realm. He was born in 1863 of a well-to-do and ancient Zemindar family and was the youngest of seven children. After schooling at the Birbhoom Zilla School, he passed the Intermediate at Presidency College, Calcutta, went to England in 1881 and, after a successful career at Lincoln's Inn, was called to the Bar in 1886. His uprightness, hard work and cool courage, his quick intelligence and sound judgment won for him pre-eminence as a Barrister of the High Court of Calcutta. In 1903, the Government appointed him as Standing Counsel. Three years later, he was made Advocate General of Bengal. In 1909, he was the first Indian elected as a member of

the Viceroy's Executive Council. In 1915 he was the President of the Indian National Congress held in Bombay. There he expressed the view that India should strive after swaraj by gradual evolution and cautious progress. He strongly maintained that industrial development was the essential need of India; he declared that, without an increase in prosperity, contentment would never come to the country; a vast section of its population was always on the border of starvation; India was rich in all the resources of nature and yet, in productiveness, was one of the poorest of countries; this was because, industrially, she was little developed. Besides industrial development, he also urged that Indians should receive the King's commissions in the Indian army and that all insidious distinctions in the Arms Act should be abolished.

In 1917, he was India's representative appointed to assist the Secretary of State at the Imperial War Conference. This made him also a member of the War Cabinet. He was made a Freeman of the City of London that year. In 1919, he was Under-Secretary of State, was created a Baron and came out to India as the first Indian Governor of Bihar.



CHAPTER XXVIII.

Afghanistan.

The connection of Afghanistan with India dates back to remote times. The Mauryas in the 3rd century B. C. whose capital was at Patna, held sway over Afghanistan. In the centuries that followed, it passed from Hindu to Persian and Mogul sovereigns. 1526. Babar was lord of Kabul in 1526. Akbar was the governor of Ghazni in his boyhood. On the possession of Kabul and Kandahar, the famous twin gates of Hindustan, depended the security of Northern India. They were prizes coveted both by Persian and Mogul. Before the death of Aurangzeb, 1707. Mogul sway had been lost in Afghanistan. Shortly after this loss, Nadir Shah, a Persian soldier of fortune who had overthrown the reigning dynasty of Persia, overran Afghanistan and entering India, routed the Mogul 1730. forces, sacked Delhi and returned to Persia.

AHMAD SHAH
DURRANI.

laden with priceless booty. He was then assassinated at camp in Kharasan. Ahmad Shah of the Abdalli clan of Afghans, who commanded a large body of cavalry in Nadir Shah's army, then rode off eastwards to conquer Afghanistan. From there he invaded and seized the whole Punjab, between 1748 and 1751. When the Marathas overran the Punjab, he swept down upon and routed them at Panipat in 1761. Had Ahmad Shah 1761. Abdalli or Durrani now founded a kingdom from Afghanistan across the Punjab to Delhi and the Ganges, the history of India and the fortunes of the British would have been different. But his troops laden with booty insisted on returning. Moreover, his western provinces on the Persian frontier were threatening to revolt. A governor was placed over the Punjab and Ahmad Shah went back to Afghanistan. He founded its dynasty of Amirs. Twenty years later, the Amir, Zaman Shah was forced by the Sikhs to retire from the Punjab. In 1797, owing to Tippu's instigation, Zaman Shah marched down to the Punjab and occupied Lahore. His action caused no slight anxiety to the British but, in 1798, he had to retire to protect his western provinces against Persia. His was the last invasion of India by an Afghan ruler.

ZAMAN SHAH.

THE AFGHAN WARS.

THE 1ST AFGHAN WAR.

1836-
1842.

LORD
AUCKLAND
GOV.-GEN.
CAUSES.

When Lord Auckland came out to India, French interference in Asiatic affairs was at an end. Russia was now feared. On the defeat of Napoleon, Russia recovered her strength and extended her dominions as far as the Caspian Sea and won commanding influence in Persia. The Persians attacked Herat. It was thought that from there, they and the Russians would invade India, for Dost Mohamed was an usurper who had driven Shah Shuja, a descendant of Ahmad Shah Abdalli, from the Afghan throne to seek British protection. An embassy under Lieutenant Burns was sent to Dost Mohamed to gain him over. Dost Mohamed, however, refused to enter into any treaty, unless he got Peshwar back from Ranjit Singh, the Sikh, who had seized it during the Afghan strife for the throne. The latter was an ally of the British. Lord Auckland thought the best way to check Russian influence, would be to support Shah Shuja's claim. A tripartite treaty was formed between the Government of India, Shah Shuja and Ranjit Singh. An army was sent into Afghanistan.

CONTEST.

The army occupied Kandahar. Ghazni and 1839.
Kabul. Ranjit Singh's son died and

the Sikh army withdrew. Dost Mohamed surrendered after his defeat at Parwan and was sent to Calcutta. Shah Shuja was enthroned, but the Afghans under Akbar Khan, the elder son of Dost Mohamed, did not want him and rebelled; they murdered Sir William Macnaghten, the political agent, and forced the British army to retire from Kabul. Of this force of fifteen thousand men, only one, Surgeon Brydon, reached Jalalabad safe. Shah Shuja was murdered. The 1st Afghan War was the worst disaster that ever befell the British in India.

LORD
ELLENBOROUGH
GOV.-GEN.

Lord Auckland was now recalled. He was succeeded by Lord Ellenborough who brought the First Afghan War to a close. Akbar Khan was successfully repulsed and driven back by General Sale at Jalalabad. Two British armies were now sent against him. The forts of Ghazni and Istalif were stormed and Kabul was taken. British honour was thus vindicated. Dost Mohamed was replaced on the throne and ruled till 1863.

RESULT.

LORD LYTTON
GOV.-GEN.

CAUSES.

THE 2ND AFGHAN WAR.

Sher Ali in 1877, fearing Russia, had sought an alliance with the British. Lord Lytton refused on the principle of "masterly inactivity." War broke out between Russia and Turkey. England intervened to prevent

SHER ALI.

Russia from taking Constantinople and sent Indian troops to Malta. Russia, in return, sent an envoy to Sher Ali, who received him well. Lytton's envoy to Sher Ali was not received. Lord Lytton instructed by Lord Salisbury and by Lord Beaconsfield, held that, if Sher Ali would not be a friend, he must be treated as an enemy, and that the danger of Russian invasion of India should be lessened by occupying a part of Baluchistan, south of Kandahar, and securing the Bolan and Kojah Passes by a garrison at Quetta.

CONTEST.

Afghanistan was invaded. Sher Ali fled to Turkestan and died soon after. Yakub Khan was made Amir, but, by the Treaty of Gondamuk, had to accept a British envoy at Kabul and to agree to the British aims traced above.

Within a few weeks, Sir Louis Cavagnari was murdered at Kabul by rebels. General Roberts occupied Kabul and punished the rebels. Sir Donald Stuart defeated them at Ahmad Khel. Yakub Khan was deposed.

The Liberals under Gladstone now came into power and disapproved of the Afghan policy that the Conservative Party had followed. Lord Lytton resigned.

1880.

LORD RIPON
GOV.-GEN.

Lord Ripon succeeded him and brought to an end the Afghan trouble and recognised Abdur Rahman. Sher Ali's nephew, as Amir. But Ayub Khan, his rival, rebelled and defeated General Burrows at Maiwand, who retired to Kandahar. Lord Roberts marched from Kabul, a distance of three hundred and eighteen miles in twenty three days and defeated Ayub Khan at Kandahar. Abdur Rahman was made Amir and the British retired from Afghanistan.

1880.

RESULT.

Baluchistan was occupied and Quetta was garrisoned. This gave control over the Bolan and Kojab Passes. Afghanistan can thus be entered without troubling over the Khyber Pass. The Kurram Pass was also held. A railway was laid through the Bolan Pass as far as Chaman.

1880.

PANJDEH.

As the Russian frontier bordered on Afghanistan territory, it was feared Russia would seize Herat. To settle the boundaries, a joint Russian and British commission was formed. Before it met, General Kamarov took Panjdeh a village between Herat and Merv. Both Russian and Afghan claimed the town. War was avoided by Lord Dufferin's diplomacy. Russia kept Panjdeh but paid the Amir a large indemnity. The Amir signed the Treaty of Rawalpindi with

1885.

LORD DUFFERIN
GOV.-GEN

RAWALPINDI.

Lord Dufferin. He received a large subsidy. The integrity of his territory was again guaranteed. Mutual friendship between British and Afghanistan was strengthened.

LCPD
LANDSDOWNE
GCV, GEN.

CHITRAL.

TIRAH

Trouble arose on the Frontier. One of 1895. the claimants to the chieftainship of Chitral, north-east of Kashmir, was not supported by the British Political Agent of the district. In consequence the latter and a small British garrison were besieged in Fort Chitral. They were relieved by two British forces. Chitral was permanently occupied. This occupation made the Waziris and the Afridis, neighbouring tribes in the Tirah valley, attack British garrisons in the Tochi valley and in the Khyber Pass. Tirah, north-west of Peshawar, was overrun by a British force and the tribes were punished but not subdued.

LORD
CURZON
GOV-GEN.

THE
TRIBESMEN.

Between Afghanistan and the British 1899-1905. North Western Frontier is a tract of country called the Borderland. It runs from Chitral in the north to British Baluchistan in the south. Warlike tribes inhabit this mountainous tract. In the north are the Chitralis; on their west are the Mohmands; below these in the Tirah valley and around the Khyber Pass are the Afridis; next come the Khels who are found in the Kohat and Kurram areas: adjoining them are the Mahsuds

FRONTIERS
POLICY.

who occupy the most westerly tracts of the Tirah district and tracts neighbouring on to Waziristan. The Waziris extend their influence as far south as the Gomal Pass, the Zhob valley and British Baluchistan. These tribes are warlike and restless. Enmity towards the British made them assault the British Frontier garrisons. Punitive expeditions had to be organised but they were very costly both in life and money. So Lord Curzon proposed to do away with these useless punitive expeditions. Accordingly, he withdrew British garrisons from isolated outposts, secured guards for the Passes by levies taken from the local tribesmen and formed the North Western Province by uniting parts of the Punjab with certain Afghan tribal districts. This Province was placed directly under the Imperial Government. His North-Western Policy worked well till 1916.

LORD
CHELMSFORD
GOV-GEN.

THE THIRD AFGHAN WAR.

1919.

Afghan hostility in 1917 showed itself very strongly. It reached a climax in 1919 when Amanullah, the Amir of Afghanistan, declared war and raided British India. The causes that fostered his hasty action may be stated as follows :—

CAUSES.

A. When the Great War broke out, and 1914.
when Turkey entered it against Britain, the religious feelings of the Afghans, who are all

Mohamedans, inclined them to the side of Turkey. For Turkey is not only the main political but the religious support of Islam.

b. Alongside of this religious influence, German agents were very busy, both in Afghanistan and India, to stir up revolt against the British so as to embarrass them in India.

c. In India itself there was wide unrest. Almost all the British army was out of the country. It was a favourable moment to deepen disaffection in India, by spreading everywhere the wildest of rumours against the British. Such rumours reached not only the Frontier tribes hitherto friendly, but went into Afghanistan itself.

d. The Tribesmen had indeed come under some British control and had been formed into a militia by Lord Curzon. But they viewed the strong strategic position of the British on their Frontier, as a menace to their independence and were restless in consequence. The Mahsuds took to raiding. At first they were left alone; but, later on, 1915. Lord Chelmsford brought them more under 1917. control. Other tribes were punished for their rebellious behaviour. The result was the conviction that the British wanted to subjugate them entirely. No men love their freedom more than these Tribesmen. Hence

HABIBULLAH.

discontent grew rampant. This was fostered by German propaganda from Afghanistan, whose army and people favoured Turkey. But the firmness of Habibullah, the Amir, who remained neutral, saved the British from greater trouble.

AMANULLAH.

E. Before dealing with the immediate cause of the desultory warfare that followed, a word on the policy of Habibullah is necessary. His father Abdur Rahman had welded Afghanistan into a powerful State. This had been done by firm control over local chiefs. They resented this but had to submit. When he died in 1901, Habibullah continued the same policy. This made enemies for him. His policy of neutrality, which, no doubt, made matters lighter for the British in India, added fuel to the fire. He was assassinated at Jalalabad. His third son Amanullah succeeded him.

1919.

CONTEST.

F. Amanullah secured the co-operation of the Tribesmen and supported by the army and people of Afghanistan, attacked British territory.

RESULT.

Jalalabad and Kabul were bombed by aeroplanes. Dacca was taken and Fort Baldak destroyed. The Amir proposed an armistice. A conference followed at which Sir Grant Hamilton represented the Viceroy,

and an Afghan noble was the envoy of Amanullah.

The result of the Conference was that the British withdrew the subsidy granted in the treaty of Rawalpindi by Lord Ripon to Abdur Rahman : a British Commission was to determine a new frontier line between Afghanistan and the British North West Territory ; and six months after settling the Frontier, another Conference was to be held to draw up a lasting agreement. The Amir was left a free hand in his foreign policy. For some time afterwards, he fought shy of any further settlement of affairs.

Desultory warfare continued for the next two years between the British and the Tribesmen, notably with the Mahsuds and the Waziris.

In the meanwhile, the Amir of Afghanistan dallied. He found himself in a position of difficulty. The Soviet Government of Russia, meeting with growth in power, was aggressively active in Persian and Afghan political spheres. India was its ultimate goal. The Amir was at first not quite able to decide whether the British or the Russian would be the better friend to have. Fortunately, the Bolshevik oppression of Mohamedans in Bokhara, Transcaucasia and

Turkistan put the Amir against an alliance of Islam with Bolshevism. He invited a British delegation to Kabul for the purpose of discussing an Anglo-Afghan Treaty. A delegation under Sir Henry Dobbs arrived in Kabul but the ebb and the flow of the Soviet fortunes in Central Asia prolonged the negotiations. When, however, the weakness of Russia under Soviet rule could no longer be concealed, the Amir's Government favoured an Anglo-Afghan treaty, if not of near friendship, at least of neighbourly feeling. The two Governments agreed not to interfere with the external and internal independence of each other; existing boundaries were acknowledged; legations at London and Kabul were arranged for and Consular officers were to be received at Delhi, Calcutta, Karachi, Bombay, Kandahar and Jalalabad respectively. Each Government undertook to inform the other of major military operations near the boundary line. Postal, Trade and Custom facilities were also agreed upon. Thus, the close of the year 1921 marked real progress in good feeling between Afghanistan and British India.

END.

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